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A

HISTORY

OF THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,

IN A PLAN

ADAPTED TO THE CAPACITY OF YOUTHS,

AND

DESIGNED TO AID THE MEMORY,

BY

SYSTEMATIC ARRANGEMENT AND INTERESTING ASSOCIATIONS.

BY CHARLES A. GOODRICH.

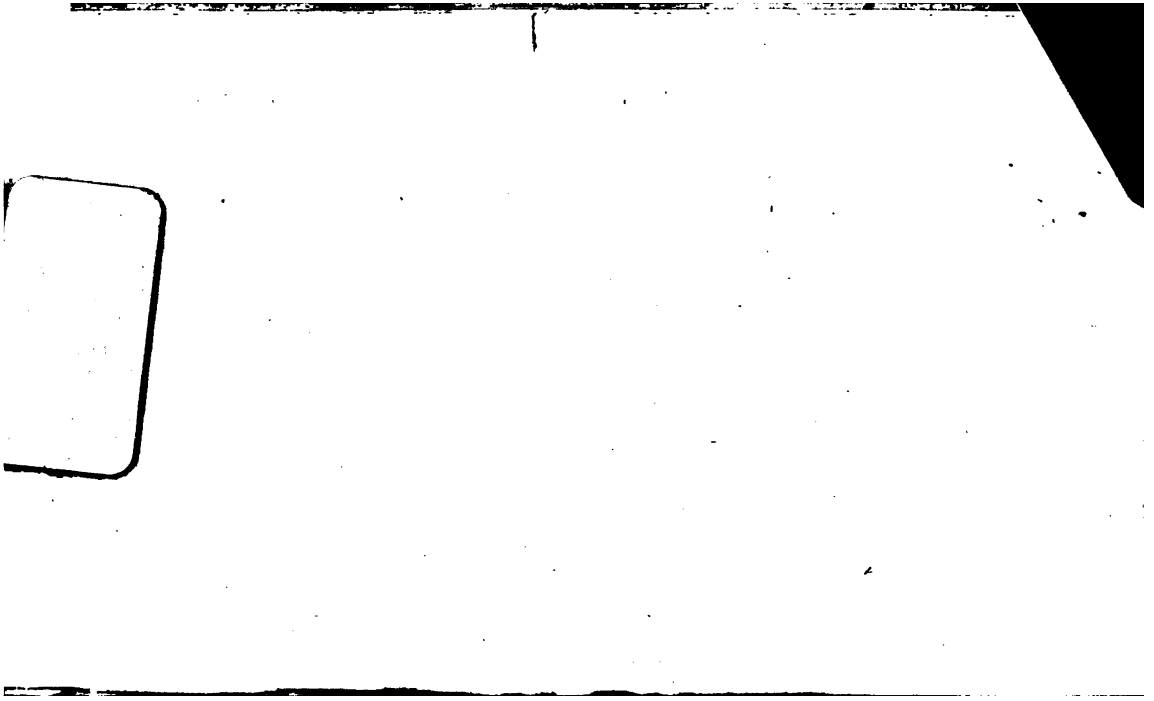
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Containing General Views of the Aboriginal Tribes—Sketches of the Discoveries and Settlements made by different Nations—the Progress of the Colonies—the Revolution—the several Administrations:—the whole interspersed with Notices of the different Eras of the Progress of Manners, Religion, Trade and Commerce, Agriculture, Arts and Manufactures, Population and Education.

BOSTON:
CARTER, HENDEE & CO.
1835.

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Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1834,

By Charles A. Goodrich,

In the Clerk's Office of the District Court of Massachusetts.

PREFACE.

MORE than ten years have elapsed since the first publication of the following work, during which period, it has passed through forty-four editions, comprising more than one hundred and fifty thousand copies. The inconvenience attending frequent alterations in a school-book, in connection with the unexpected patronage of the work, has deterred the author from attempting any revision of it, although he has been aware, for years, that it admitted of important improvements.

At length, admonished that the advanced state of our schools and academies demands a more full and complete work, the author has devoted some months to a careful and thorough revision of it. Besides correcting some errors, he has endeavored to supply important deficiencies, especially in relation to the *earlier* and *later* portions of the History, by which the quantity of matter has been greatly increased. He has, in particular, endeavored to do more justice to the "*forefathers*" of the land, in compliance with a suggestion of the late distinguished principal* of the Female Seminary in Wethersfield, Ct., whose public recommendation of the work was as flattering as unexpected.

The author has retained the plan originally adopted, from a conviction of its general excellence; and in this he has been strengthened by the patronage which has been given to the work by a generous, but discerning public. For the benefit of the pupil, who may not at once understand the plan of the volume, the following brief explanation is added:—The principal object of dividing the History into periods is to aid the memory, by presenting certain marked eras, from which the whole subject of dates may be readily and distinctly viewed.

Two sizes of type are employed. The matter in larger type is designed to give a brief outline of the History of the United States, and may be read in connection. The matter in smaller type is to be regarded rather in the light of notes, which, without studying exact regularity, are thrown in as they may subserve the purposes of illustration and completeness in the delineation of events, or as they may contribute to support the interest and establish the recollections of the reader.

* Rev. Joseph Emerson.

INTRODUCTION.

THE study of History presents the following advantages:—

1. It sets before us striking instances of virtue, enterprise, courage, generosity, patriotism; and, by a natural principle of emulation, incites us to copy such noble examples. History also presents us with pictures of the vicious ultimately overtaken by misery and shame, and thus solemnly warns us against vice.

2. History, to use the words of Professor Tytler, is the school of politics. That is, it opens the hidden springs of human affairs; the causes of the rise, grandeur, revolutions and fall of empires: it points out the influence which the manners of a people exert upon a government, and the influence which that government reciprocally exerts upon the manners of a people: it illustrates the blessings of political union, and the miseries of faction; the dangers of unbridled liberty, and the mischiefs of despotic power.

3. History displays the dealings of God with mankind. It calls upon us often to regard with awe his darker judgments; and again it awakens the liveliest emotions of gratitude for his kind and benignant dispensations. It cultivates a sense of dependence on him, strengthens our confidence in his benevolence, and impresses us with a conviction of his justice.

4. Besides these advantages, the study of History, if properly conducted, offers others, of inferior importance, indeed, but still they are not to be disregarded. It chastens the imagination; improves the taste; furnishes matter for reflection; enlarges the range of thought; strengthens and disciplines the mind.

5. To the above it may be added, that the History of the *United States* should be studied, 1. Because it is the history of our own country. 2. Because it is the history of the first civil government ever established upon the genuine basis of freedom. 3. Because it furnishes lessons upon the science of civil government, social happiness, and religious freedom, of greater value than are to be found in the history of any other nation on the globe. 4. Because it presents uncommon examples of the influence of religious principle. 5. Because an acquaintance with it will enable a person better to fulfil those duties which, in a free government, he may be called to discharge.

GENERAL DIVISION.

THE History of the United States of America may be divided into *Twelve Periods*, each distinguished by some striking characteristic, or remarkable circumstance.

The FIRST PERIOD will extend from the *Discovery of America by Columbus*, 1492, to the first permanent English settlement in America, at Jamestown, Virginia, 1607, and is distinguished for DISCOVERIES.

Obs. Previous to the discovery of America in 1492, the inhabitants of Europe, Asia, and Africa, were of course ignorant of its existence. But soon after this event, several expeditions were fitted out, for the purpose of making discoveries in what was then called the "New World." Accordingly, between 1492 and 1607, the principal countries lying along the eastern coast of North America, were discovered, and more or less explored. As our history, during this period, embraces little more than accounts of these expeditions, we characterize it as remarkable for *discoveries*.

The SECOND PERIOD will extend from the *Settlement of Jamestown*, 1607, to the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, 1689, and is distinguished for SETTLEMENTS.

Obs. During this period our history is principally occupied in detailing the various *settlements*, which were either effected or attempted, within the boundaries of the United States. It includes, indeed, wars with the natives—disputes between proprietors of lands and colonies—the formation of governments, &c. &c.; but these are circumstances which pertain to, and form a part of, the settlement of new countries. As this period embraces the settlement of most of the original states in the Union, viz. Massachusetts, including Maine, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware, North and South Carolina, and Virginia, it is therefore characterized as remarkable for *settlements*.

The THIRD PERIOD will extend from the *accession of William and Mary* to the throne of England, 1689, to the declaration of the war by England against France, called "the French and Indian War," 1756, and is remarkable for the three wars of KING WILLIAM, QUEEN ANNE, and GEORGE II.

Obs. So long as the colonies remained attached to the English crown, they became involved, of course, in the wars of the mother country. Three times, during this period, was war proclaimed between England and France; and, as the French had possession of Canada, and were leagued with several powerful tribes of Indians, as often did the colonies become the theatre of their hostile operations. This period is therefore most remarkable for these *three wars*.

The FOURTH PERIOD will extend from the *Declaration of war by England against France*, 1756, to the commencement of hostilities by Great Britain against the American Colonies, in the battle of Lexington, 1775, and is distinguished for the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

The FIFTH PERIOD will extend from the *Battle of Lexington*, 1775, to the disbanding of the American Army at West Point, New York, 1783, and is distinguished for the WAR OF THE REVOLUTION.

The SIXTH PERIOD will extend from the *Disbanding of the Army*, 1783, to the Inauguration of George Washington, as President of the United States, under the Federal Constitution, 1789, and is distinguished for the FORMATION AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION.

The SEVENTH PERIOD will extend from the *Inauguration of President Washington*, 1789, to the Inauguration of John Adams, as President of the United States, 1797. This period is distinguished for WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.

The EIGHTH PERIOD will extend from the *Inauguration of President Adams*, 1797, to the Inauguration of Thomas Jefferson, as President of the United States, 1801. This period is distinguished for ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION.

The NINTH PERIOD will extend from the *Inauguration of President Jefferson*, 1801, to the Inauguration of James Madison, as President of the United States, 1809. This period is distinguished for JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

The TENTH PERIOD will extend from the *Inauguration of President Madison*, 1809, to the Inauguration of James Monroe, as President of the United States, 1817. This period is distinguished for MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION, and the late WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

The ELEVENTH PERIOD will extend from the *Inauguration of President Monroe*, 1817, to the Inauguration of John Quincy Adams, as President of the United States, 1825. This period is distinguished for MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION.

The TWELFTH PERIOD will extend from the *Inauguration of President Adams*, 1825, to the Inauguration of Andrew Jackson, as President of the United States, 1829. This period is distinguished for ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD I.

DISTINGUISHED FOR DISCOVERIES.

Extending from the Discovery of San Salvador, by Columbus, 1492, to the first permanent English Settlement at Jamestown, Virginia, 1607.

Sec. 1. THE honor of first making known to the inhabitants of Europe, the existence of a *Western Continent*, belongs to *Spain*, as a nation, and to *Christopher Columbus*, a native of Genoa, as an individual.

After the discovery of America by Columbus, other nations laid claim to this honor; and thus attempted to deprive the Genoese navigator, as well as the Spanish nation, of the merit to which they were justly entitled.

The only nations, however, who appear to have had even the semblance for such a claim, were the *Welsh* and *Norwegians*.

By the *former*, it was maintained, that the continent was discovered by Madoc, son of Owen Gwynneth, who, returning to his country, again sailed for the land he had discovered, about the year 1170, taking with him ten ships, and 300 men, for the purpose of founding a colony. Of the fate of this expedition, nothing was ever known. As it is well established, however, that the first voyage of Madoc was not a long one, it is justly inferred that the land, to which he was leading his colony, could not have been more westerly than the islands in the Atlantic, situated about half way between the Eastern and Western Continents, now known by the name of the *Azores*.

The pretensions of the *Norwegians* were founded upon the discovery of an unknown land, some time in the eleventh century, by one Biron or Biorn, an Icelander. During a voyage to Iceland, which, with Greenland, had been discovered and settled at an earlier date, Biron was driven south-east by a storm, and fell in with a country, to which, from its abounding with vines, he

gave the name of *Vineland.* In his account of this voyage, the description given of the appearance of the sun, in the country discovered, would seem to indicate, that it lay in latitude about 44 degrees.

The fruits found there bore a resemblance to those now found in Newfoundland, or the country about the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Upon these *uncertain* data, the Norwegians founded their claims to a priority in the discovery of America; but, on Biron's return, his discovery appears to have excited little interest among his countrymen, and to have slept in forgetfulness, until after Columbus had established the existence of a Western World.

2. The voyage of Columbus, which led to the foregoing important discovery, and of which Ferdinand and Isabella, the sovereigns of the united thrones of Castile and Arragon, were patrons, was commenced on the 3d of August, 1492; at which time, the Genoese navigator sailed from Palos, an inconsiderable seaport in Spain, with a fleet, consisting of three small vessels, manned by ninety seamen. On the morning of the 12th of October following, he fell in with an island, called by the natives *Guanahani*; but to which he gave the name of *San Salvador.* This island, known on *English* maps by the name of *Cat Island*, belongs to the great cluster of the Lucayos, or Bahama Islands. During the same voyage, he discovered several other islands, among which were the important ones of Cuba and Hispaniola.

Columbus, whose discovery of the above islands led the way to a knowledge of the existence of a Western Continent, was born in the city of Genoa, about the year 1435 or 1436. His father was a reputable and meritorious man; by occupation, a wool-comber, long resident in the city of Genoa. Columbus was the eldest of four children, having two brothers, Bartholomew and Diego, and one sister.

His early education was limited; but he diligently improved the advantages, which the means of his father enabled him to enjoy. After spending a short time at the University of Pavia, he returned to his father, whom he assisted in wool-combing.

His enterprising disposition, however, prompted him to more active employment; and, at the age of fourteen years, we find him entering upon a sea-faring life.

Having spent some time in the service of a distant relation, who followed the seas, he repaired to Lisbon. He was at this time about 34 years of age; a tall, well-formed, vigorous man; enter-

prising in his disposition, and uncommonly dignified in his manners. Taking up his residence, for a time, at Lisbon, he became acquainted with, and married the daughter of a distinguished navigator, the former governor of Porto Santo, an island in the vicinity of Madeira, about 700 miles south-west from Lisbon.

The father of his wife being dead, Columbus resided with his mother-in-law, who gave him the privilege of examining the papers, charts, journals, and memorandums, of her deceased husband. These made Columbus acquainted with many important facts and suggestions, touching the great enterprise in which the Portuguese were, at that time, engaged, viz. the discovery of a passage to the East Indies, by doubling the southern extremity of Africa.

To a mind inquisitive and enterprising like that of Columbus, this subject was invested with the deepest interest and importance. And the more he read and reflected upon the figure of the earth, the stronger was his belief, not merely that a western passage to India was practicable; but that whoever should be sufficiently enterprising to navigate the Atlantic, by sailing due west, must meet with a large body of land, which might be an extension of the continent of India, designed to balance the lands lying in the eastern hemisphere.

In this latter opinion, he was strengthened by various discoveries in the Atlantic, such as pieces of carved wood, trunks of huge pine-trees, &c., which had been noticed, after long westerly winds; but especially by the well-established fact, that the bodies of two men had been cast upon one of the Azore islands, whose features differed from those of any known race of people.

Having matured the plan of a voyage, with the above object in view, he first offered to sail under the patronage of the Portuguese; but, being disappointed in this application, and despairing of assistance from Henry VII. of England, to whom he had sent his brother Bartholomew, but who, being captured, did not reach England for some time, he repaired to Genoa, and offered to sail under the auspices of that republic. Finding, however, his native state not in a situation favorable to such an undertaking, he next repaired to Spain.

By what route, or by what means, Columbus reached Spain, is uncertain. The first trace we have of him, in this country, is as a stranger, on foot, and in humble guise, stopping at the gate of the Convent of Santa Maria de Rabida, not far from the little seaport of Palos, and asking of the porter a little bread and water for a child—his son Diego, whom his deceased wife had left to him. While receiving this humble refreshment, the prior of the convent, happening to pass by, was struck with the appearance of the stranger, and observing, from his air and accent, that he was a foreigner, entered into conversation with him, and soon learned the particulars of his story.

The prior was a man of extensive information, and entered warmly into the views and plans of Columbus. Through his influence, the enterprising navigator was, at length, enabled to lay his plans before Ferdinand and Isabella, then on the united thrones of Castile and Arragon.

For a time, these sovereigns were deaf to his application; but, at length, the queen undertook the enterprise, in behalf of the crown of Castile, and, to defray the expense of the outfit and voyage, parted with her royal jewels.

The necessary funds being thus provided, a fleet, consisting of three small vessels, was, at no distant time, in a state of readiness for the voyage. Two of these were light barks, called caravals, not superior to river and coasting craft of more modern days. These were open, without deck in the centre, but built high at the prow and stern, with forecastles and cabins for the accommodation of the crew. The names of these vessels were the *Pinta* and *Nina*. The ship of Columbus was decked, and of larger dimensions. She was called the *Santa Maria*. On board this fleet were ninety mariners, together with various private adventurers—in all, one hundred and twenty persons.

On Friday, the 3d of August, 1492, early in the morning, the squadron of Columbus set sail from Palos, steering in a south-westerly direction for the Canary Islands, from whence it was his intention to strike due west.

Passing over many interesting incidents in their outward voyage —the storms and tempests which they encountered—the delusive appearances of land—their hopes and their fears—their high-wrought excitement, and then their deep dejection—the murmurs, and even mutinous spirit of the crew, and the happy expedients of Columbus to raise their courage, and to keep burning within them the spirit of the enterprise—we arrive at the 11th of October, at which time the indications of land were so strong, that, at night, Columbus ordered a double watch, on the forecastle of each vessel, and promised to the first discoverer of the long-looked-for land a doublet of velvet, in addition to the pension of thirty crowns, which had been offered by Ferdinand and Isabella.

The greatest animation now prevailed throughout the ships; not an eye was closed that night. As evening darkened, Columbus took his station on the top of the castle or cabin, on the high poop of his vessel. However he might carry a cheerful and confident countenance during the day, it was to him a time of the most painful anxiety. And now, when wrapped by the shades of night from observation, he maintained an intense and unremitting watch, ranging his eye along the dusky horizon, in search of the most vague indication of land. Suddenly, about ten o'clock, he thought he beheld a light glimmering at a distance. Fearing that his eager hopes might deceive him, he called to Pedro Gutierrez, gentleman of the king's bed-chamber, and demanded whether he saw a light in that direction; the latter replied in the

affirmative. Columbus, yet doubtful whether it might not be some delusion of the fancy, called Roderigo Sanchez, of Segovia, and made the inquiry. By the time the latter had ascended the round-house, the light had disappeared. They saw it once or twice afterwards, in sudden and passing gleams, as if it were a torch in the bark of a fisherman, rising and sinking with the waves, or in the hand of some person on shore, borne up and down as he walked from house to house. So transient and uncertain were these gleams, that few attached any importance to them. Columbus, however, considered them as certain signs of land, and, moreover, that the land was inhabited.

They continued their course until two in the morning, when a gun from the Pinta gave the joyful signal of land. It was first descried by a mariner, named Roderigo de Friana; but the reward was afterwards adjudged to the admiral for having previously perceived the light. The land was now clearly seen about two leagues distant; whereupon they took in sail, and laid to, waiting impatiently for the dawn.

The morning at length arrived, October 12th; and before the delighted Spaniards lay a level and beautiful island, several leagues in extent, of great freshness and verdure, and covered with trees like a continual orchard.



Columbus, in a rich dress, and with a drawn sword, soon after landed with his men, with whom having kneeled and kissed the

ground with tears of joy, he took formal possession of the island, in the name of Queen Isabella, his patron. On landing, the Spaniards were surprised to find a race of people quite unlike any that they had ever seen before. They were of a dusky copper color—naked—beardless, with long black hair, floating on their shoulders, or bound in tresses round their heads. The natives were still more surprised at the sight of the Spaniards, whom they considered as the children of the sun, their idol. The ships they looked upon as animals, with eyes of lightning, and voices of thunder.

Having spent some time in an examination of this island, he proceeded to visit several others not far distant; and at length, on the 28th of October, came in sight of the important island of Cuba, and not long after fell in with the island of Hispaniola, or San Domingo.

Having spent some time in examining the country, and in an amicable traffic with the natives, Columbus set sail on his return. He was overtaken by a storm, which had nearly proved fatal. During the storm, Columbus hastily enclosed in a cake of wax a short account of his voyage and discovery, which he put into a tight cask, and threw it into the sea. This he did, hoping that, if he perished, it might fall into the hands of some navigator, or be cast ashore, and thus the knowledge of his discovery be preserved to the world. But the storm abated, and he arrived safe in Spain, March 15th, 1493.

For this discovery, it being the first, and having laid the foundation for all the subsequent discoveries in America, Columbus was doubtless entitled to the honor of giving a name to the New World. But he was robbed of it by the address of Americus Vespucius. This adventurer was a Florentine, who sailed to the New World in 1499, with one Alonzo Ojeda, a gallant and active officer, who had accompanied Columbus in his first voyage. On his return he published so flattering an account of his voyage, that his name was given to the continent, with manifest injustice to Columbus.

After this, Columbus made several other voyages, but did not discover the *continent of America* until Aug. 1, 1498, during his *third* voyage, on which day, he, for the first time, obtained a view of the *main continent, near the mouth of the Oronoco.* Yet he was ignorant at the time, that the land in question was any thing more than an island.

During this voyage, Columbus was destined to experience severe afflictions. After his departure from Spain, having been appointed governor of the New World, his enemies, by false representations, persuaded the king to appoint another in his place. At the same time, the king was induced to give orders that Columbus should be seized and sent to Spain. This order

was executed with rigid severity; and the heroic Columbus returned to Spain in irons!

On his arrival, he was set at liberty by the king; but he never recovered his authority. Soon after his return from a fourth voyage, finding Isabella, his patroness, dead, and himself neglected, he sunk beneath his misfortunes and infirmities, and expired on the 20th of May, 1506. His last words were, "Into thy hands, O Lord, I commend my spirit."

The body of Columbus was deposited in the convent of St. Francisco, but was afterwards removed to a monastery at Seville, where, for a time, it rested with the remains of his son Diego. The bodies of both, however, were afterwards removed to Hispaniola, and here again disinterred, and conveyed to Havana, in the island of Cuba, where, in peace, they now repose.

We shall conclude this notice of the great pioneer to this western world, in the eloquent language of the author to whom we have been indebted for the principal incidents in the life of this illustrious man.* "He (Columbus) died in ignorance of the real grandeur of his discovery. Until his last breath, he entertained the idea that he had merely opened a new way to the old resorts of opulent commerce, and had discovered some of the wild regions of the East. He supposed Hispaniola to be the ancient Ophir, which had been visited by the ships of Solomon, and that Cuba and Terra Firma were but remote parts of Asia. What visions of glory would have broken upon his mind, could he have known that he had indeed discovered a new continent, equal to the whole of the old world in magnitude, and separated by two vast oceans from all the earth hitherto known by civilized man!"

3. The discovery of Columbus naturally excited the attention of the civilized nations of Europe, and they became eager to share with Spain the honors and advantages of further discoveries in the new world. As early as May, 1497, John and Sebastian Cabot, father and son, sailed, under the patronage of Henry VII., king of England, on a voyage of discovery; and, in June following, fell in with the island of Newfoundland, which they called *Prima Vista*. Soon after, they discovered the smaller island of St. John's and the *continent itself*. On their return, they pursued a southerly course to Virginia, and, according to others, to the cape of Florida. They returned without attempting a settlement, but took possession of the country in behalf of the crown of England.

* Irving's Columbus

John Cabot appears to have been a native of Venice, but to have settled in England, with his family, some time previous to the above voyage. The commission granted to him by Henry, which is the oldest American state paper of England, bore date March 5th, 1496, although he did not sail until the year following. This squadron was allowed to consist of six ships, of the burden of two hundred tons; but, for reasons not well understood, they sailed with but two caravals, and three hundred men. These were freighted by the merchants of London and Bristol. They have the honor of making the first discovery of the continent, Columbus not falling in with it until 1498, during his third voyage, as has already been related. The extent of this voyage of the Cabots appears not to have been settled by historians. Some writers suppose that they reached the latitude of 67°, while others make the limits of their voyage the 45th and 38th degrees of north latitude.

4. The French attempted no discoveries on the American coast, until 1524. This year, John Verrazano, a native of Florence, sailed under the patronage of Francis I. of France, and, in the course of his voyage, explored the coast from 30° to 50° of north latitude, and examined Florida with considerable accuracy.

Historians differ in their account of this voyage of Verrazano. By some, he is supposed to have first made the American coast where the town of Savannah now stands. Others place his approach (in latitude 37°) whence it is supposed that he proceeded south to latitude 34°, in the neighborhood of Wilmington, North Carolina, where he landed. Thence sailing southerly, as far as the 30th degree, he resumed his northern course, touching, it is supposed, at Sandy Hook, and afterwards at some of the islands off Rhode Island, whence he proceeded northerly to the 50th degree of north latitude, to Newfoundland. The following year, this enterprising navigator made another voyage to the American coast, during which, by some unknown disaster, he was lost, with all his crew.

5. In 1534, James Cartier, under a commission from the king of France, made a voyage to America, in which he visited the island of Newfoundland, and discovered the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The following year, during a second voyage, he proceeded up the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to the Isle of Orleans, and thence as far as Montreal. At the former place he spent the winter, and in the spring returned to France.

On his first voyage, Cartier sailed with two small ships, and one hundred and twenty-two men. On the 10th of May, he made the island of Newfoundland; but, being prevented by the ice from proceeding farther, he sailed southwardly. As soon, however, as the season would permit, he returned to the north, and visited several harbors in Newfoundland and Labrador. Proceeding northerly, with the hope of passing to China, he discovered and entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence, but soon after was obliged, on account of unpropitious weather, to return to France. During his second voyage, he reached, as we have stated above, the island on which Montreal stands. Here he found a large Indian settlement, by the inhabitants of which he was well treated. This Indian settlement was called Hochelaga. Cartier gave it the name of Mount Royal, from a mountain in the neighborhood. From this circumstance, the island and city of Montreal derive their name. During the winter, which he passed at the island of Orleans, many of his men died of the scurvy, with which they had been afflicted for some time.

It may here be added, that, in 1540, Cartier again visited America, with the intention of forming a settlement. He built a fort at some distance from the Isle of Orleans; but, in the following spring, not having received anticipated supplies, he set sail to return to France with his colony. At Newfoundland, he met with three ships and two hundred persons, on their way to the new settlement. Cartier proceeded on his voyage to France. The other ships continued their course to the fort which Cartier had left. After passing a distressing winter, the whole party, abandoning the settlement, in the spring returned to France.

6. In the spring of 1541, six years from the discovery of the river St. Lawrence, another equally important river, the Mississippi, was discovered. This honor belongs to Ferdinand de Soto, a Spaniard, who, having projected the conquest of Florida from the natives, arrived from Cuba, 1539, with a considerable force. He traversed the country to a great distance, and in the spring of 1541, first discovered the Mississippi, five or six hundred miles from its mouth.

The object of Soto, in traversing so wide an extent of country, appears to have been to search for gold. The summer and winter of 1539 he spent in Florida. In 1540, he began his tour north-east, and having crossed the Altamaha, Savannah, and Ogechee rivers, he turned westerly, and, crossing the Alleghanies, proceeded southwardly as far as Mobile and Pensacola. The winter of this year he spent with the Chickasaws. The following spring, he made the important discovery above mentioned.

The following year, he died on the banks of the Red river, soon after which, the remnant of his followers, who, at first, amounted to some hundreds, constructed several small boats, and, having sailed down the Mississippi, returned to Cuba.

7. In 1584, Sir Walter Raleigh, under a commission from Queen Elizabeth of England, despatched two small vessels, commanded by Amidas and Barlow, to the American coast. On their arrival, they entered Pamlico sound, now in North Carolina, and thence proceeded to Roanoake, an island near the mouth of Albemarle sound. Here they spent several weeks in trafficking with the natives, but effected no settlement. On their return to England, they gave so splendid a description of the beauty and fertility of the country, that Elizabeth bestowed upon it the name of *Virginia*, as a memorial that the happy discovery had been made under a virgin queen.

Previously to the above voyage, under the auspices of Sir Walter Raleigh, two unfortunate attempts had been made by his brother-in-law, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, to effect a settlement in the new world. Both, however, proved ineffectual; and during the last, while Sir Humphrey was returning to England, his vessel was shipwrecked, and all on board perished. Not discouraged by the unfortunate issue of the enterprises of Gilbert, Raleigh fitted out an expedition, as we have above stated, in 1584. The report brought back by Amidas and Barlow induced Sir Walter, in 1585, to attempt a settlement at the island of Roanoake. This colony was, in a short time, reduced to great distress, and, in 1586, returned with Sir Francis Drake to England. The following year, however, another colony was sent out, consisting of one hundred and fifty adventurers. These, most unfortunately, were neglected, in respect to supplies; and when, at length, a vessel was despatched to inquire into their state, not a vestige of them remained.

8. In 1602, Bartholomew Gosnold, in a voyage from Falmouth to the northern part of Virginia, discovered the promontory in Massachusetts bay, which, since his time, has been known by the name of Cape Cod, from the circumstance of his taking a great number of cod-fish at that place.

Gosnold was the first Englishman, who, abandoning the circuitous route by the Canaries and West Indies, came in a direct

course to this part of the American continent. He was but seven weeks in making the passage. After the discovery of Cape Cod, coasting south-west, he discovered two islands, one of which he named Martha's Vineyard, and the other Elizabeth island. On the western part of this latter island it was concluded to settle, and a fort and storehouse were accordingly erected; but, before Gosnold left the place, discontents arising among those who were to form the colony, it was thought expedient to abandon the settlement and to return to England. The homeward voyage occupied but five weeks.

NOTES.

9. As we are now about to enter upon a period which will exhibit our ancestors as inhabitants of this new world, it will be interesting to know what was its aspect when they first landed upon its shores.

STATE OF THE COUNTRY.—On the arrival of the first settlers, North America was almost one unbroken wilderness. From the recesses of these forests were heard the panther, the catamount, the bear, the wild-cat, the wolf, and other beasts of prey. From the thickets rushed the buffalo, the elk, the moose, and the carrabo; and, scattered on the mountains and plains, were seen the stag and fallow deer. Numerous flocks of the feathered tribe enlivened the air, and multitudes of fish filled the rivers, or glided along the shores. The spontaneous productions of the soil, also, were found to be various and abundant. In all parts of the land grew grapes, which historians have likened to the ancient grapes of Eshcol. In the south were found mulberries, plums, melons, cucumbers, tobacco, corn, peas, beans, potatoes, squashes, pumpions, &c. Acorns, walnuts, chestnuts, wild cherries, currants, strawberries, whortleberries, in the season of them, grew wild in every quarter of the country.

10. ABORIGINES.—The country was inhabited by numerous tribes or clans of Indians. Of their *number*, at the period the English settled among them, no certain estimate has been transmitted to us. They did not probably much exceed 150,000 within the compass of the thirteen original states.*

In their *physical character*, the different Indian tribes, within the boundaries of the United States, were nearly the same. Their persons were tall, straight, and well

* This is the estimate of Dr. Trumbull.

proportioned. Their skins were red, or of a copper-brown; their eyes black, their hair long, black, and coarse. In constitution, they were firm and vigorous, capable of sustaining great fatigue and hardship.

As to their *general* character, they were quick of apprehension, and not wanting in genius. At times, they were friendly, and even courteous. In council, they were distinguished for gravity and eloquence; in war, for bravery and address. When provoked to anger, they were sullen and retired; and when determined upon revenge, no danger would deter them; neither absence nor time could cool them. If captured by an enemy, they never asked life; nor would they betray emotions of fear, even in view of the tomahawk, or of the kindling fagot.

They had no *books* or written *literature*, except rude hieroglyphics; and *education* among them was confined to the arts of war, hunting, fishing, and the few manufactures which existed among them, most of which every male was more or less instructed in. Their language was rude, but sonorous, metaphorical, and energetic. It was well suited to the purposes of public speaking; and, when accompanied by the impassioned gestures, and uttered with the deep guttural tones of the savage, it is said to have had a singularly wild and impressive effect. They had some few war-songs, which were little more than an unmeaning chorus; but it is believed, they had no other compositions which were preserved.

Their *arts* and *manufactures* were confined to the construction of wigwams, bows and arrows, wampum, ornaments, stone hatchets, mortars for pounding corn, to the dressing of skins, weaving of coarse mats from the bark of trees, or a coarse sort of hemp, &c.

Their *agriculture* was small in extent, and the articles they cultivated were few in number. Corn, beans, peas, potatoes, melons, and a few others of a similar kind, were all.

Their *skill in medicine* was confined to a few simple prescriptions and operations. Both the cold and warm bath were often applied, and a considerable number of plants were used with success. For some diseases they knew no remedy, in which case they resorted to their *powow*, or priest, who undertook the removal of the disease by means of sorcery.

It may be remarked, however, that the *diseases* to which the Indians were liable, were few, compared with those which prevail in civilized society.



Indian Women engaged in Agriculture.



Indian Amusements.

The *employments* of the *men* were principally *hunting*, *fishing*, and *war*. The *women* dressed the food, took charge of the domestic concerns, tilled their narrow and scanty fields, and performed almost all the drudgery connected with their household affairs.

The *amusements* of the men were principally leaping, shooting at marks, dancing, gaming, and hunting, in all of which they made the most violent exertions. Their dances were usually performed round a large fire. In their war-dances, they sung or recited the feats which they or their ancestors had achieved; represented the manner in which they were performed, and wrought themselves up to an inexpressible degree of martial enthusiasm. The females occasionally joined in some of these sports, but had none peculiar to themselves.

Their *dress* was various. In summer they wore little besides a covering about the waist; but in winter they clothed themselves in the skins of wild beasts. They were exceedingly fond of ornaments. On days of show and festivity, their sachems wore mantles of deer-skin, embroidered with white beads, or copper; or they were painted with various devices. Hideousness was the object aimed at in painting themselves. A chain of fish-bones about the neck, or the skin of a wild-cat, was the sign of royalty.

For *habitations*, the Indians had *weekwams*, or wigwams, as



pronounced by the English. These originally consisted of a strong pole, erected in the centre, around which, at the distance

of ten or twelve feet, other poles were driven obliquely into the ground, and fastened to the centre pole at the top. Their coverings were of mats, or barks of trees, well adjusted so as to render them dry and comfortable.

Their *domestic utensils* extended not beyond a hatchet of stone; a few shells and sharp stones, which they used for knives; stone mortars for pounding corn, and some mats and skins upon which they slept. They sat, and ate, and lodged on the ground. With shells and stones they scalped their enemies, dressed their game, cut their hair, &c. They made nets of thread, twisted from the bark of Indian hemp, or of the sinews of the moose and deer. For fish-hooks, they used bones which were bent.

Their *food* was of the coarsest and simplest kind—the flesh, and even the entrails, of all kinds of wild beasts and birds; and, in their proper season, green corn, beans, peas, &c. &c., which they cultivated, and other fruits, which the country spontaneously produced. Flesh and fish they roasted on a stick, or broiled on the fire. In some instances, they boiled their meat and corn by putting hot stones in water. Corn they parched, especially in the winter; and upon this they lived in the absence of other food.

The *money* of the Indians, called *wampum*, consisted of small beads wrought from shells, and strung on belts, and in chains. The wampum of the New England Indians was black, blue, and white. That of the Six Nations was of a purple color. Six of the white beads, and three of black, or blue, became of the value of a penny. A belt of wampum was given as a token of friendship, or as a seal or confirmation of a treaty.

There was little among them that could be called *society*. Except when roused by some strong excitement, the men were generally indolent, taciturn, and unsocial. The women were too degraded and oppressed to think of much besides their toils. Removing, too, as the seasons changed, or as the game grew scarce, or as danger from a stronger tribe threatened, there was little opportunity for forming those local attachments, and those social ties, which spring from a long residence in a particular spot. Their language also, though energetic, was too barren to serve the purposes of familiar conversation. In order to be understood and felt, it required the aid of strong and animated gesticulation, which could take place only when great occasions excited them. It seems, therefore, that they drew no considerable part of their enjoyments from intercourse with one another. Female beauty had little power over the men; and all other pleasures gave way to the strong impulses of public festivity, or burning captives, or seeking murderous revenge, or the chase, or war, or glory.

War was the favorite employment of the savages of North America. It roused them from the lethargy into which they fell when they ceased from the chase, and furnished them an oppor-

tunity to distinguish themselves—to achieve deeds of glory, and taste the sweets of revenge. Their weapons were bows and arrows headed with flint or other hard stones, which they discharged with great precision and force. The southern Indians used targets made of bark; the Mohawks clothed themselves with skins, as a defence against the arrows of their enemies. When they fought in the open field, they rushed to the attack with incredible fury; and, at the same time, uttered their appalling war-whoop. Those whom they had taken captive they often tortured with every variety of cruelty, and to their dying agonies added every species of insult. If peace was concluded on, the chiefs of the hostile tribes ratified the treaty by smoking, in succession, the same pipe, called the *calumet*, or pipe of peace.

The *government* of the Indians, in general, was an absolute monarchy, though it differed in different tribes. The will of the sachem was law. In matters of moment, he consulted his counsellors; but his decisions were final. War and peace, among some tribes, seem to have been determined on in a council formed of old men, distinguished by their exploits. When in council, they spoke at pleasure, and always listened to the speaker with profound and respectful silence. When propositions for war or peace were made, or treaties proposed to them by the colonial governors, they met the ambassadors in council, and, at the end of each paragraph or proposition, the principal sachem delivered a short stick to one of his council, intimating that it was his peculiar duty to remember that paragraph. This was repeated, till every proposal was finished; they then retired to deliberate among themselves. After their deliberations were ended, the sachem, or some counsellors to whom he had delegated this office, replied to every paragraph in its turn, with an exactness scarcely exceeded in the written correspondence of civilized powers. Each man actually remembered what was committed to him, and, with his assistance, the person who replied remembered the whole."

The *religious notions* of the natives consisted of traditions, mingled with many superstitions. Like the ancient Greeks, Romans, Persians, Hindoos, &c. they believed in the existence of two gods, the one *good*, who was the superior, and whom they styled the Great or Good Spirit; the other *evil*. They worshipped both; and of both formed images of stone, to which they paid religious homage. Besides these, they worshipped various other deities—fire, water, thunder—any thing which they conceived to be superior to themselves, and capable of doing them injury. The manner of worship was to sing and dance round large fires. Besides dancing, they offered prayers, and sometimes sweet-scented powder. In Virginia, the Indians offered blood, deer's suet, and tobacco. Of the creation and the deluge, they had distinct traditions.

Marriage among them was generally a temporary contract.

The men chose their wives agreeably to fancy, and put them away at pleasure. Marriage was celebrated, however, with some ceremony, and, in many instances, was observed with fidelity; not unfrequently it was as lasting as life. Polygamy was common among them.

Their *treatment of females* was cruel and oppressive. They were considered by the men as slaves, and treated as such. Those forms of decorum between the sexes, which lay the foundation for the respectful and gallant courtesy, with which women are treated in civilized society, were unknown among them. Of course, females were not only required to perform severe labor, but often felt the full weight of the passions and caprices of the men.

The *rites of burial*, among the Indians, varied but little throughout the continent. They generally dug holes in the ground, with sharpened stakes. In the bottom of the grave were laid sticks, upon which the corpse, wrapped in skins and mats, was deposited. The arms, utensils, paints, and ornaments of the deceased, were buried with him, and a mound of earth raised over his grave. Among some tribes in New England, and among the Five Nations, the dead were buried in a sitting posture, with their faces towards the east. During the burial, they uttered the most lamentable cries, and continued their mourning for several days.

The *origin* of the Indians inhabiting the country, on the arrival of the English colonists, is involved in much obscurity; and several different answers have been given by learned men to the inquiry, Whence did they come to America? The opinion best supported is, that they originated in Asia, and that at some former period, not now to be ascertained, they emigrated from that country to America, over which, in succeeding years, their descendants spread. This opinion is rendered the more probable by the fact, that the figure, complexion, dress, manners, customs, &c. &c., of the nations of both continents, are strikingly similar. That they *might* have emigrated from the eastern continent is evident, since, in latitude 66°, the two continents are not more than forty miles distant from each other; and between them are two islands less than twenty miles distant from either shore.

REFLECTIONS.

11. We shall find it pleasant and profitable occasionally to pause in our history, and consider what instruction may be drawn from the portion of it that has been perused.

In the story of Columbus, we are introduced to a man of genius, energy, and enterprise. We see him forming a new, and, in that age, a mighty project; and, having matured his plan, we see him set himself vigorously about its execution. For a time, he is either treated as a visionary or baffled by opposition. But, neither discouraged nor dejected, he steadily pursues his purpose,

surmounts every obstacle, and at length spreads his sails upon the unknown waters of the Atlantic. A kind Providence auspiciously guides his way, and crowns his enterprise with the unexpected discovery of a new world.

While we admire the lofty qualities of Columbus, and look with wonder at the consequences which have resulted from his discovery, let us emulate his decision, energy, and perseverance. Many are the occasions, in the present world, on which it will be important to summon these to our aid; and, by their means, many useful objects may be accomplished, which, without them, would be unattained.

But, while we thus press forward in the career of usefulness, while we aim to accomplish for our fellow men all the amount of good in our power, let us moderate our expectations of reward here, by the consideration that Columbus died the victim of ingratitude and disappointment.

Another consideration, of still deeper interest, is suggested by the story of Columbus. We, who live to mark the wonderful events which have flowed from his discovery, within the short space of three centuries, cannot but advert with awe to HIM who attaches to the actions of a single individual a train of consequences so stupendous and unexpected. How lightly soever, then, we may think of our conduct, let us remember, that the invisible hand of Providence may be connecting with our smallest actions the most momentous results to ourselves and others.

With respect to Americus Vespucius, it may be observed, that, although he deprived Columbus of the merited honor of giving his name to the new world, and gained this distinction for himself, still his name will ever remain stigmatized, as having appropriated that to himself which fairly belonged to another.

UNITED STATES

PERIOD II.

DISTINGUISHED FOR SETTLEMENTS,

Extending from the first permanent English Settlement at Jamestown, Virginia, 1607, to the Accession of William and Mary to the Throne of England, 1689.

Sec. 1. Prior to the year 1607, a period of 115 years from the discovery of San Salvador by Columbus, several attempts, some of which we have noticed, were made to effect settlements in various parts of North America; but none had proved successful.

A sufficient reason may be assigned for the failure of the several attempts to effect permanent settlements in North America, viz. that they were undertaken upon individual responsibility, with bad calculations, and intrusted, in most instances, to men of mercenary views. And, as to the sovereigns of Europe, they were too much occupied with affairs at home, to engage in speculations abroad. Besides, no prince or statesman in Europe appears to have foreseen the advantages of planting colonies in this northern continent. Had it contained mines of gold and silver, like South America, they would have contended with one another for the prize. But it seems not to have been conceived how numerous, hardy colonies, could give such strength, opulence and grandeur to empires, as could never be derived from the gold and rich productions of the southern regions. One advantage, however, resulted to the nations of Europe, and which, for many years, they enjoyed in common, viz. the fishery on the banks of Newfoundland. For a time, it was prosecuted to an inconsiderable extent; but, at length, it ripened into a system, and became a source of national emolument.

2. The year 1607 marks the era when the first permanent settlement was effected by Europeans in North America. In the month of May of this year, a colony from England, consisting of one hundred and five persons, arrived in Virginia; and, on a beautiful peninsula in James river, began a settlement, which they called *Jamestown.*



3. This name was given to the above settlement in honor of James I. of England, who, the year previously, had granted to two companies, called the *London* and *Plymouth* companies, the lands in North America embraced between the 34th and 45th degrees of north latitude—the southern part, called South Virginia, to the London, and the northern, called North Virginia, to the Plymouth company.

The London company consisted of Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Somers, Richard Hackluyt, Edward Maria Wingfield, &c. These were authorized to make a settlement at any place between the 34th and 41st degrees of latitude; and in them was

vested the right of property in the land extending fifty miles each way from their place of habitation, reaching one hundred miles into the country. The Plymouth company consisted of Thomas Hanham, Raleigh Gilbert, William Parker, George Popham, and others, principally inhabitants of Bristol, Plymouth, and the eastern parts of England. To this company was granted the lands between the 38th and 45th degrees of latitude. They were vested with the right of property in lands to the same extent as in the southern colony: neither company, however, were to form settlements within one hundred miles of the other.

4. Under the auspices of the London company, the first settlement in Virginia was commenced. The expedition was commanded by Capt. Christopher Newport; but the government of the colony was framed in England, before it sailed. It was to consist of a council of seven persons, with a president, to be elected by the council from their number. Who composed it was unknown at the time the expedition sailed, their names being carefully concealed in a box, which was to be opened after their arrival.

The original intention of the colony was to form a settlement at Roanoake; but, being driven by a violent storm north of that place, they discovered the entrance of Chesapeake bay, the capes of which they named Charles and Henry. Entering this, they at length reached a convenient spot upon which to commence a settlement.

The code of laws, hitherto cautiously concealed, was now promulgated; and, at the same time, the council appointed in England was made known. It consisted of Bartholomew Gosnold, John Smith, Edward Wingfield, Christopher Newport, John Ratcliffe, John Martin, and George Kendall. Mr. Wingfield was chosen president.

Among the most enterprising and useful members of this colony, and one of its magistrates, was Capt. John Smith. In his youth, he had been apprenticed to a merchant; but, being of a roving turn, he quitted his master; and, although at this time but thirteen years of age, he travelled in France, whence he proceeded to the Netherlands, Egypt, and Germany, and, at length, entered the service of the emperor of Austria, who was engaged in a war with the Turks.

The regiment in which he served was engaged in several hazardous enterprises, in which Smith exhibited a bravery admired by all the army; and when Meldrick left the imperial service for that of his native prince, Smith followed.

At the siege of Regal, he was destined to new adventures. The Ottomans, deriding the slow advance of the Transylvania army, the Lord Turbisha despatched a messenger with a challenge, that, for the diversion of the ladies of the place, he would fight any captain of the Christian troops.

The honor of accepting this challenge was determined by lot, and fell on Smith. At the time appointed, the two champions appeared in the field on horseback, and, in the presence of the armies, and of the ladies of the insulting Ottoman, rushed impetuously to the attack. A short, but desperate conflict ensued, at the end of which Smith was seen bearing the head of the lifeless Turbisha in triumph to his general.

The fall of the chief filled his friend Crualgo with indignation, and roused him to avenge his death. Smith accordingly soon after received a challenge from him, which he did not hesitate to accept; and the two exasperated combatants, upon their chargers, fell with desperate fury upon each other. Victory again followed the falchion of Smith, who sent the Turk headlong to the ground.

It was now the turn of Smith to make the advance. He despatched a message, therefore, to the Turkish ladies, that if *they* were desirous of more diversion of a similar kind, they should be welcome to his head, in case their third champion could take it.

Bonamalgro tendered his services, and haughtily accepted the Christian's challenge. When the day arrived, the spectators assembled, and the combatants entered the field. It was an hour of deep anxiety to all: as the horsemen approached, a deathlike silence pervaded the multitude. A blow from the sabre of the Turk brought Smith to the ground; and, for a moment, it seemed as if the deed of death was done. Smith, however, was only stunned. He rose like a lion when he shakes the dew from his mane for the fight, and, vaulting into his saddle, made his falchion "shed fast atonement for its first delay." It is hardly necessary to add, that the head of Bonamalgro was added to the number.

In a general battle, in which he was subsequently engaged, he was wounded and taken prisoner. On his recovery, he was sold as a slave, and was taken to Constantinople. He was required to wait upon the lady of his master, who, captivated by his fine appearance, sent him, in the absence of her husband, to the care of her brother, who resided near the sea of Asoph.

But he, being of a cruel disposition, treated Smith with so much inhumanity, that, one day, in a fit of desperation, he killed his new master, and fled into Russia. From this country, he travelled through Germany, France, and Spain; and, at length, returned once more to England.

At this time, the settlement of America was occupying the attention of many distinguished men in England. The life of

Smith, united to his fondness for enterprises of danger and difficulty, had prepared him to embark with zeal in a project so novel and sublime as that of exploring the wilds of a newly-discovered continent.

He was soon attached to the expedition about to sail under Newport, and was appointed one of the magistrates of the colony sent over at that time. Before the arrival of the colony, his colleagues in office, becoming jealous of his influence, arrested him on the absurd charge, that he designed to murder the council, usurp the government, and make himself king of Virginia. He was, therefore, rigorously confined during the remainder of the voyage.

On their arrival in the country, he was liberated, but could not obtain a trial, although, in the tone of conscious integrity, he repeatedly demanded it. The infant colony was soon involved in perplexity and danger. Notwithstanding Smith had been calumniated, and his honor deeply wounded, his was not the spirit to remain idle, when his services were needed. Nobly disdaining revenge, he offered his assistance, and, by his talents, experience, and indefatigable zeal, furnished important aid to the infant colony.

Continuing to assert his innocence, and to demand a trial, the time at length arrived, when his enemies could postpone it no longer. After a fair hearing of the case, he was honorably acquitted of the charges alleged against him, and soon after took his seat in the council.

The affairs of the colony becoming more settled, the active spirit of Smith prompted him to explore the neighboring country. In an attempt to ascertain the source of Chickahoming river, he ascended, in a barge, as far as the stream was uninterrupted. Designing to proceed still farther, he left the barge in the keeping of the crew, with strict injunctions on no account to leave her, and, with two Englishmen and two Indians, left the party. But no sooner was he out of view, than the crew, impatient of restraint, repaired on board the barge, and, proceeding some distance down the stream, landed at a place where a body of Indians lay in ambush, by whom they were seized.

By means of the crew, the route of Smith was ascertained, and a party of Indians were immediately despatched to take him. On coming up with him, they fired, killed the Englishmen, and wounded himself. With great presence of mind, he now tied his Indian guide to his left arm, as a shield from the enemies' arrows, while, with his musket, he despatched three of the most forward of the assailants.

In this manner, he continued to retreat towards his canoe, while the Indians, struck with admiration of his bravery, followed with respectful caution. Unfortunately, coming to a sunken spot filled with mire, while engrossed with eyeing his

pursuers, he sunk so deep as to be unable to extricate himself, and was forced to surrender.

Fruitful in expedients, to avert immediate death, he presented an ivory compass to the chief, whose attention was arrested by the vibrations of the needle. Taking advantage of the impression which he had thus made, partly by signs and partly by language, he excited their wonder still more, by telling them of its singular powers.

Their wonder, however, seemed soon to abate, and their attention returned to their prisoner. He was now bound, and tied to a tree, and the savages were preparing to direct their arrows at his breast. At this instant, the chief holding up the compass, they laid down their arms, and led him in triumph to Powhatan, their king.

Powhatan and his council doomed him to death, as a man whose courage and genius were peculiarly dangerous to the



Indians. Preparations were accordingly made; and when the time arrived, Smith was led out to execution. His head was laid upon a stone, and a club presented to Powhatan, who himself claimed the honor of becoming the executioner. The savages in silence were circling round, and the giant arm of Powhatan had already raised the club to strike the fatal blow, when, to his astonishment, the young and beautiful Pocahontas, his daughter, with a shriek of terror, rushed from the throng, and threw her-

self upon the body of Smith. At the same time, she cast an imploring look towards her furious, but astonished father, and, in all the eloquence of mute, but impassioned sorrow, besought his life.

The remainder of the scene was honorable to Powhatan. The club of the chief was still uplifted; but a father's pity had touched his heart, and the eye that had at first kindled with wrath, was now fast losing its fierceness. He looked round as if to collect his fortitude, or perhaps to find an excuse for his weakness, in the pity of the attendants. A similar sympathy had melted the savage throng, and seemed to join in the petition which the weeping Pocahontas felt, but durst not utter, "My father, let the prisoner live." Powhatan raised his daughter, and the captive, scarcely yet assured of safety, from the earth.

Shortly after, Powhatan dismissed Capt. Smith, with assurances of friendship; and the next morning, accompanied with a guard of twelve men, he arrived safely at Jamestown, after a captivity of seven weeks.*

In 1609, circumstances having arisen to interrupt the friendly dispositions of Powhatan towards the colony, he plotted their entire destruction. His design was to attack them unapprized, and to cut them off at a blow.

In a dark and stormy night, the heroic Pocahontas hastened alone to Jamestown, and disclosed the inhuman plot of her father. The colony were thus put on their guard, and their ruin averted.

It may be interesting to add, concerning Pocahontas, that some time after this, she was married to an English gentleman of the name of Rolfe, with whom she visited England. She embraced the Christian religion, and was baptized by the name of Rebecca. She left one son, who had several daughters, the descendants of whom inherited her lands in Virginia, and are among the most respectable families in that state.

5. The colony, thus commenced, soon experienced a variety of calamities, incidental, perhaps, to infant settlements, but not the less painful and discouraging. Inefficiency and a want of harmony marked the proceedings of the council. Provisions were scarce, and of a poor quality. The neighboring tribes of Indians became jealous and hostile; and, more than all, sickness spread among them, and carried a large proportion of their number to an early grave.

By the middle of July, they were so distressed with the badness and scarcity of provisions, with sickness, labor, and contin-

* Burk's Virginia.

ual guarding against the enemy, that scarcely ten of the whole company could walk, or even stand alone. By the end of the month, fifty of their number were no more. Among the dead, was that enterprising gentleman, Captain Gosnold, the projector of the whole scheme of the plantation.

To increase their misfortunes, the president embezzled the public stores, and attempted to run away with the company's bark, and to return to England. It was therefore found necessary, for the common safety, to displace him. Mr. Ratcliffe was elected to the presidency. But it very soon appeared that his abilities were by no means equal to the exigencies of the company; and the whole weight of government fell, therefore, on Capt. John Smith.*

The condition of the colony was, at length, somewhat improved, and their courage renewed, by the arrival of Capt. Newport, (who had been despatched to England,) with a supply of provisions, and an additional number of men. This number was not long after augmented, and a further supply of necessaries received, by the arrival of Capt. Nelson, who had sailed in company with Newport, but who had been separated from him during a storm, and for some time was supposed to be lost. With these accessions, the colonists now amounted to two hundred men. This number was still further increased, before the end of 1608, by the arrival of seventy colonists, among whom were many persons of distinction.

6. Early in the year 1609, the London company, not having realized their anticipated profit from their new establishment in America, obtained from the king a new charter, with more ample privileges. Under this charter, Thomas West, otherwise called Lord De la War, was appointed governor for life.

The company, under their new act of incorporation, was styled, "The treasurer and company of adventurers and planters for the first colony in Virginia." They were now granted in absolute property, what had formerly been conveyed only in trust—a territory extending from Point Comfort two hundred miles north and south, along the coast, and throughout the land from sea to sea.

7. Lord De la War, being appointed governor of the colony, but not being able to leave England, immediately despatched to America nine ships and five hundred men, under command of Sir Thomas Gates, his lieutenant, and

* Trumbull

Sir George Summers, his admiral. Eight of these ships arrived in safety at Jamestown, in the month of August; but that on board of which was Sir Thomas and other officers, being wrecked on the Bermudas, did not arrive till May of the following year.

The ship, thus wrecked, contained one hundred and fifty persons, the whole of whom were, for a time, in extreme danger of being lost. For three days, they were obliged to labor incessantly at the pump. The leak, however, still increasing, it was attempted to run her on shore; but she stranded, at the distance of three quarters of a mile from land. By the help of the boats, however, the crew and passengers were all saved; and, having built two small vessels, again set sail for Virginia, where they arrived at the time stated above.

8. At the time Sir Thomas and the other officers arrived, the colony had become reduced to circumstances of great depression. Capt. Smith, in consequence of a severe accidental wound, had some time before returned to England. His departure was followed by disastrous consequences. Subordination and industry ceased; the Indians became hostile, and refused the usual supplies of provisions. Famine ensued; and to such extremities had they sunk, that the skins of the horses were devoured, as were also the bodies of Indians whom they had killed, and even the remains of deceased friends. Of five hundred persons, sixty only remained. At this juncture, the shipwrecked from Bermuda arrived. An immediate return to England was resolved upon; and, with that intent, they embarked. But, just as they were leaving the mouth of the river, Lord De la War fortunately appeared, with supplies of men and provisions, and they were persuaded to return. By means of his judicious management, the condition of the colony soon wore a better aspect, and for several years continued to prosper.

It was unfortunate, however, for the colony, that ill health obliged Lord De la War, in March, 1611, to leave the administration. He was succeeded by Sir Thomas Dale, who arrived in May. Hitherto, no right of property in land had been established, but the produce of labor was deposited in public stores, and

shared in common. To remedy the indolence and indifference growing out of such a system, Sir Thomas assigned to each inhabitant a lot of three acres as his own, and a certain portion of time to cultivate it. The advantages of this measure were soon so apparent, that another assignment of fifty acres was made, and not long after the plan of working in a common field was abandoned.

9. In 1613, several Dutch merchants erected a fort on Hudson's river, where Albany now stands, and a few trading houses on the island of New York, at that time called by the Indians *Manhattan*.

Hudson's river derives its name from Henry Hudson, an Englishman by birth, but who, at the time of this discovery, was in the service of the Dutch East India Company. Hudson left the Texel on the 20th of March, 1609, with the design of penetrating to the East Indies by sailing a north-westward course. Failing in this, he proceeded along the shores of Newfoundland, and thence southward as far as Chesapeake and Delaware bays. Thence returning northward, he discovered and sailed up the river which now bears his name.

By virtue of this discovery, the Dutch laid claim to the country, and the following year several Dutch merchants sent ships to the river to open a trade with the natives. The claim thus set up by the Dutch, was denied by the court of England, not on the ground that Hudson was not the first to discover and enter the river, but that, being an English subject, the right to the country belonged to them.

The Dutch, having planted themselves at Manhattan, were visited the same year by Capt. Argal, of Virginia, with a naval force, who demanded the surrender of the place to the English crown, as properly constituting a part of Virginia. The Dutch governor, finding himself incapable of resistance, submitted himself and his colony to the king of England, and under him to the governor of Virginia. Notwithstanding this surrender, the country still continued to be called, as before, New Netherlands, and the settlement, the place where New York now stands, New Amsterdam. These names they retained till the final conquest of the country by the English, in 1664. (See *Sec.* 37.)

10. In 1614, Capt. John Smith sailed from England, with two ships, to North Virginia. During this voyage, he ranged the coast from Penobscot to Cape Cod, and gave names to several points of land, which now, for the first time, were discovered. On his return home, having formed a map of the country, he presented it to

Prince Charles, who, in the warmth of admiration, declared that the country should be called NEW ENGLAND. Cape Ann was so called by the prince in filial respect to his mother.

11. The year 1619 forms a memorable epoch in the history of Virginia, a provincial legislature being at this time introduced, in which the colonists were represented by delegates chosen by themselves.

This colonial assembly, the first legislature to which the people of America sent representatives, was convoked by Sir George Yeardly, the governor-general of the colony, and met at Jamestown, on the 19th of June. Before this, the colonists had been ruled rather as soldiers in garrison, by martial law; but now they were invested with the privileges of freemen. They were divided into eleven corporations, each of which was represented in the assembly.

The following year, the colony received a large accession to their number. Eleven ships arrived, with twelve hundred and sixty persons, for settlement. Nearly one thousand colonists were resident here before. In order to attach them still more to the country, Sir Edwin Sandys, the treasurer of the company, recommended to send over a number of young women of reputable character, to become wives to the planters. Accordingly ninety at this time came over, and sixty the following year. These were sold to the planters at the price, at first, of one hundred, and, afterwards, one hundred and fifty pounds of tobacco. Tobacco, at this time, was worth three shillings per pound. Debts incurred for the purchase of wives were recoverable before any others.

Accessions to the colony, of a different character, were also made about this time. By order of King James, one hundred persons of profligate character, who had rendered themselves obnoxious to government by their crimes, were sent to the colony by way of punishment. This, perhaps designed for its benefit, as the exiles were chiefly employed as laborers, was ultimately prejudicial to its prosperity.

During the year 1620, slave-holding was introduced into the colony. A Dutch ship from Africa, touching at Jamestown, landed twenty negroes for sale. These were purchased by the planters; and with these was introduced an evil into the country, the sad effects of which are felt to the present day.

12. The year 1620 marks the era of the first settling of *New England*. On the 22d of December of this year, a colony originally from England, known by the

name of *Puritans*, landed at *Plymouth*, Massachusetts, and began the settlement of that place. Although natives of England, they were driven thence by the arm of persecution, for urging a more thorough reformation in the church of England.

They fled from England, first to Amsterdam, in Holland, in 1607, with their pastor, the Rev. Mr. Robinson. From Amsterdam, they soon after removed to Leyden, where they continued until they embarked for America.

Among the motives which influenced them to remove to America, the prospect of enjoying "a purer worship and greater liberty of conscience," was the principal. To secure these objects, they were willing to become exiles from a civilized country, and encounter the dangers and privations which might meet them in a wilderness.

The people who first settled New England were principally from the counties of Nottinghamshire, Lancashire, and Yorkshire. In these counties, there prevailed, about the year 1602, an extensive revival of religion. The new converts, wishing to worship God in a manner more simple than was observed in the established church, but not being allowed to do it while they continued members of it, agreed upon a separation from it; and, for the sake of peace, and more liberty of conscience, resolved upon a removal to the States of Holland, which, at that time, granted a free toleration to different denominations of Protestants.

The leader of these emigrants, in the year 1607, was an able and pious man, Mr. John Robinson, who, with his congregation, having disposed of their property, prepared for their removal, with a design to fix themselves at Amsterdam; but now they found the ports and harbors carefully watched; and, the design of this congregation being suspected, strict orders were given that they should not be suffered to depart.

They were compelled to use the most secret methods, to give extravagant fees to seamen, by whom, notwithstanding, they were often betrayed. Twice they attempted to embark, but were discovered and prevented. At another time, having got on board a ship, with their effects, the ship-master sailed a little distance, and then returned, and delivered them to the resentment of their enemies.

The next year, they made another attempt, in which, after the

severest trials, they succeeded. Having engaged a ship belonging to Holland, for their conveyance, they were going on board. By some treachery, their enemies had been informed of their design, and, at this juncture, a great number of armed men came upon them. A part of the men were on board, without any of their effects; the women and children were in a bark approaching the ship. The Dutch captain, apprehensive of danger to himself, hoisted sail, and, with a fair wind, directed his course to Holland.

The passengers used every effort to persuade him to return, but in vain. They saw their wives and children fall into the hands of merciless enemies, while unable to afford them any relief. They had none of their effects, not even a change of clothes, on board.

A violent storm came on, which raged seven days, without intermission. By the violence of the storm, they were driven to the coast of Norway. On a sudden, the sailors exclaimed, "The ship has foundered; she sinks; she sinks!" The seamen trembled in despair; the pilgrims looked up to God, and cried, "Yet, Lord, thou canst save; yet, Lord, thou canst save." To the astonishment of all, the vessel soon began to rise; rode out the storm, and, at length, reached its destined port. After some time, all their friends who had been left, arrived safely in Holland.

This congregation fixed their residence at Amsterdam. But, in consequence of some unhappy disputes which then agitated the other English churches in that city, they thought it prudent to remove. Accordingly, they retired the next year, and settled in the city of Leyden. Here they were kindly received, and enjoyed a quiet habitation. As the flames of religious tyranny and persecution continued to rage in England, many of their countrymen joined them. Under the able ministry of their beloved pastor, they continued in great union and prosperity, and became a numerous congregation.

After remaining a number of years in Holland, this little flock found their situation, on many accounts, unpleasant. The immoralities of their neighbors were dangerous to the rising generation; the difficulties of procuring a comfortable living induced not a few of their sons to enter the Dutch armies; and, at no distant day, there was reason to apprehend their posterity would become incorporated with the people of the country, and their church become extinct.

These considerations, added to the more powerful motive, the hope of laying a foundation for the extensive advancement of the kingdom of Christ in the western wilderness, induced them to remove to America. Previous to their final determination, as their governing maxim always was, "In all thy ways acknowl-

edge God, and he shall direct thy paths," they set apart a day for fasting and prayer, to seek direction from God.*

Having decided to settle in Virginia, their next object was to obtain a patent, which they at length effected from the London company. At the same time, they received from King James an intimation, that they should not be molested in respect to the enjoyment of their religion. They now began to prepare themselves for their momentous enterprise. For this purpose, they procured two vessels, the Speedwell and the Mayflower. The Speedwell, of sixty tons, they purchased in Holland, with the intention of keeping her for their accommodation in America. The Mayflower, of one hundred and eighty tons, they hired at London.

All things being in readiness for their departure from Leyden, they kept a day of solemn humiliation and prayer. On the 21st of July, the pilgrims went to Delfthaven, a place about twenty miles from Leyden, and two miles from Rotterdam. Here they were to embark. To this port they were kindly attended by many of their brethren and friends from Amsterdam, as well as from Leyden. Leaving Delfthaven, they sailed for Southampton, at which place they were joined by the rest of their company from London, in the Mayflower. On the 5th of August, 1620, both vessels set sail for the new world; but before proceeding far, the Speedwell sprung a-leak, and at Plymouth, whither they put in, she was condemned as not seaworthy. Under these circumstances, a part of the emigrants were dismissed, and the rest were taken on board of the Mayflower.

With one hundred passengers, this vessel sailed from Plymouth, September 6th. For two months they were tossed and driven upon the tempestuous ocean; till, at length, on the 9th of November, they had the happiness to descry the bleak and dreary shores of Cape Cod. The part then discovered was Sandy Point, called Cape Malabar, in Chatham. But they were still remote from the place which they had selected for a habitation. It was their intention to settle near the mouth of the Hudson. Toward that river they now bent their course. But the wintry season, the stormy prospect, "the perilous shoals and breakers" in their way, induced them to relinquish their design, and seek the nearest resting-place, where they might hope for tolerable accommodations. They therefore turned back, sailed round Race Point, and, after two days, November 11th, anchored in Cape Cod harbor, between Cape Cod and Plymouth.†

Before landing, having devoutly given thanks to God for their safe arrival, they formed themselves into a body politic, forty-one signing a solemn contract, according to the provisions of which they were to be governed. Mr. John Carver was elected governor for one year.

* Robbins's New England Fathers. † Dr. Parish.

"Government being thus established, sixteen men, well armed, with a few others, were sent on shore the same day, to fetch wood and make discoveries; but they returned at night, without having found any person or habitation. The company, having rested on the Lord's day, disembarked on Monday, the 13th of November; and soon after proceeded to make further discovery of the country.

"On Wednesday, the 15th, Miles Standish and sixteen armed men, in searching for a convenient place for settlement, saw five or six Indians, whom they followed several miles, until night; but, not overtaking them, were constrained to lodge in the woods. The next day, they discovered heaps of earth, one of which they dug open; but finding within implements of war, they concluded these were Indian graves; and, therefore, replacing what they had taken out, they left them inviolate. In different heaps of sand, they also found baskets of corn, a quantity of which they carried away in a great kettle, found at the ruins of an Indian house. This providential discovery gave them seed for a future harvest, and preserved the infant colony from famine. Before the close of the month, Mrs. Susannah White became the mother of an infant son, who was called Perigrine; and this was the first child, of European extraction, born in New England.

"On the 6th of December, the shallop was sent out with several of the principal men, Carver, Bradford, Winslow, Standish, and others, and eight or ten seamen, to sail round the bay, in search of a place for settlement. The next day, this company was divided; and, while some travelled on shore, others coasted in the shallop. Early on the morning of the 8th, those on shore were surprised by a flight of arrows from a party of Indians; but on the discharge of the English muskets, the Indians instantly disappeared.

"The shallop, after imminent hazard from the loss of its rudder and mast in a storm, and from shoals which it narrowly escaped, reached a small island on the night of the 8th; and here the company, the next day, which was the last day of the week, reposed themselves with pious gratitude for their safety. On this island they kept the Christian sabbath. The day following, they sounded the harbor, and found it fit for shipping; went on shore, and explored the adjacent land, where they saw various cornfields and brooks; and judging the situation to be convenient for a settlement, they returned with the welcome intelligence to the ship.

"On the 15th, they weighed anchor, and proceeded with the ship for this newly-discovered port, where they arrived on the following day. On the 18th and 19th, they went on shore for discovery, but returned at night to the ship. On the morning of the 20th, after imploring divine guidance, they went on shore again, to fix on some place for immediate settlement. After viewing the country, they concluded to settle on a high ground,

facing the bay, where the land was cleared, and the water was excellent.



"On Saturday, the 23d, as many of the company as could, with convenience, went on shore, and felled and carried timber to the spot designed for the erection of a building for common use. On the Lord's day, the 24th, the people on shore were alarmed by the cry of Indians, and expected an assault; but they continued unmolested. On Monday, the 25th, they began to build the first house. A platform for their ordnance demanding their earliest attention, they began one on the 28th. on a hill, which commanded an extensive prospect of the plain beneath, of the expanding bay, and of the distant ocean.

"In the afternoon, they divided their whole company into nineteen families; measured out the ground, and assigned to every person by lot, half a pole in breadth, and three poles in length, for houses and gardens. Though most of the company were on board the ship on the Lord's day, Dec. 31st, yet some of them kept sabbath for the first time in their new house. Here, therefore, is fixed the epoch of their settlement, which. in grateful remembrance of the Christian friends whom they found at the last town they left in their native country, they called *Plymouth*. This was the foundation of the first English town built in New England."*

* Holmes's Annals.

13. In November, 1620, the same month in which the Puritans arrived on the American coast, James I. issued a patent granting to the Duke of Lenox, Ferdinando Gorges, and others, styling themselves "The Council of Plymouth, in the county of Devon, for planting and governing New England, in America," the territory between the 40th and 48th degrees of north latitude, and extending through the main land from sea to sea.

This territory had, until this time, been known by the name of North Virginia; but now it received the name of New England, by royal authority. The patent thus issued to the council of Plymouth, was the foundation of all the subsequent grants, under which the colonies of New England were settled.

14. In March, 1621, the colony of Plymouth, through Gov. Carver, entered into a league of friendship, commerce, and mutual defence, with Masassoit, the great sachem of the neighboring Indians. This treaty, which was strictly observed until the breaking out of Philip's war, (a period of more than fifty years,) gave general peace to the colony, and laid the foundation for their intimate and amicable correspondence with the neighboring Indian tribes.

The person chiefly instrumental in bringing this event to pass, was Samoset, a sagamore or chief of the country lying at the distance of about five days' journey. He was the first visitant of the colony at Plymouth, and greatly surprised the inhabitants, by calling out, as he entered their village, "Welcome, Englishmen! welcome, Englishmen!" He had conversed with the English fishermen who had come to the eastern coast, and had learned some of the language. He informed the colony that the place where they were settled, was called by the Indians *Patuxet;* that, five years before, a plague had swept off all the natives from the place, so that there was neither man, woman, nor child remaining. Providence had thus singularly prepared the way for the colonies to take possession of the land without molesting a single owner.

Samoset, having been treated with hospitality by these strangers, was disposed to cultivate a further acquaintance with them; and, on his third visit, was accompanied by Squanto, a native of the country, who had been carried away in 1614, by one Hunt, and sold into Spain, but had been taken to London, whence he had returned to America.

They informed the English that Masassoit, the greatest sachem

of the neighboring Indians, was near, with a guard of sixty men. Mutual distrust prevented, for some time, any advances from either side. But Squanto, who was at length sent to Masassoit, returned, saying that the sachem wished the English to send some one to confer with him. Mr. Edward Winslow was accordingly sent, bearing suitable presents to the chief. These proving acceptable, Masassoit left Mr. Winslow in the custody of his men as a hostage, and ventured to the English, by whom he was hospitably entertained, and with whom he concluded the treaty already noticed.

15. In 1621, the colony of Virginia received from the London company, through Sir Francis Wyat, who, at this time, arrived as governor, a more perfect constitution and form of government. The powers of this government were vested in a governor and two councils. One of these was called the council of state, to advise and assist the governor. This council was to be appointed and removed by the company. The other was called the general assembly, consisting of the council of state, and two burgesses, or representatives, deputed from each town, hundred, or plantation. This assembly met annually, and were intrusted with the business of framing laws for the colony, the governor having a negative upon their proceedings. No laws were valid until ratified by a court of the company in England.

16. In 1622, the Virginia colony, which for some time had enjoyed great prosperity, and had received frequent accessions, experienced a stroke which proved nearly fatal. The successor of Powhatan, who was of a proud, revengeful spirit, and extremely hostile to the colony, concerted a plan to cut them off at a blow On the 22d of March, it was so far put in execution, that three hundred and forty-seven of the colony, men, women, and children, were butchered almost in the same instant.

The chief by whom this massacre was planned, and under whom it was executed, was Opecancanough, the successor of Powhatan, but a deadly foe to the English. The whole Indian population in the surrounding country had been enlisted by this

artful chief, and yet they visited the English settlements, and even purchased arms and borrowed boats to enable them to accomplish their savage purpose.

"On the very morning of the fatal day, as also the evening before, they came, as at other times, into the houses of the English, with deer, turkeys, fish, and other things to sell. At midday, the hour appointed, the blow fell; and, in the work of death, neither sex nor age was spared. So quick was the execution, that few perceived the weapon or the blow which despatched them.

"Those who had sufficient warning to make resistance, saved their lives. Nathaniel Causie, an old soldier of Capt. Smith's, though cruelly wounded, cleaved down one of his assailants with an axe, upon which the whole party who had surrounded him fled, and he escaped. At another place two men held possession of a house, against sixty Indians. At Warrasqueake, a Mr. Baldwin, whose wife was so badly wounded that she lay for dead, by repeatedly discharging his musket, drove off the enemy, and saved both her and himself. Ralph Hamer, the historian, defended himself in his house successfully, with spades, axes and brickbats. One family, living near Martin's Hundred, where as many as seventy-three of the English were slain, not only escaped the massacre, but heard nothing of it, till two or three days afterwards. Jamestown and some of the neighboring places were saved by the disclosure of a Christian Indian, named Chanco, who was confidentially informed of the design by his brother, on the morning of the 22d."* As soon as the English had time to recover themselves, they rose to avenge the death of their slaughtered friends, and succeeded in driving far into the wilderness such as they could not destroy. But by means of the calamities which fell upon the English, their settlements were reduced from eighty to eight; and by the year 1624, out of nine thousand persons who had been sent from England, but eighteen hundred existed in the colony.

17. While the Virginians were mourning their losses, the Plymouth colony began to experience the distresses of famine. By the time their planting was finished, in 1623, they were destitute of bread and corn. The most gloomy anticipations were indulged, but, by a remarkable and well-attested interference of Divine Providence, they were delivered.

From the third week in May to the middle of July, there was no rain. Their corn, for which they had made their utmost exertions, withered under the heat of a scorching sun, and the greater part of it appeared irrecoverably lost. The Indians, seeing their

* Thatcher's Indian Biography.

prospects, observed that they would soon be subdued by famine, when *they* should find them an easy prey. A public fast was appointed and observed with great solemnity. The morning and most of the day was clear and hot, but towards evening, the clouds collected, and, like the gracious influences of God, the rain descended in moderate yet copious showers. This revived their expiring crop, and produced a plentiful harvest. After which they observed a day of public thanksgiving, the origin of the annual thanksgiving which is now observed in New England.*

18. In 1623, a number of persons from England were sent to America by Ferdinando Gorges, to form settlements on lands which had been granted to them by the council of Plymouth, between the Merrimac and Sagadahok, and extending from the ocean west to the rivers of Canada. These settlers, arriving in the river Piscataqua, began two settlements, one at the mouth, called Little Harbor; the other still higher up the river, at Cocheco, afterwards called Dover. These were the first settlements in NEW HAMPSHIRE.



19. In 1624, the London company, which had settled

* Robbins's New England Fathers

Virginia, was dissolved by an act of King James I. under pretext of the calamities which had befallen the colony, and the dissensions which had agitated the company. Their charter was taken away, and the government of the colony assumed by the crown. The king himself appointed the governor, in whom, with twelve counsellors, the powers of government were vested.

The London company, thus dissolved, consisted of gentlemen of noble and disinterested views, who had expended more than one hundred thousand pounds of their fortunes in this first attempt to plant an English colony in America; and more than nine thousand persons had been sent from the mother country to people this new settlement. At the time of the dissolution of the company, scarcely two thousand persons survived.

The dissolution of the charter was a most arbitrary act in the king; and not less arbitrary and odious were his subsequent regulations. Under these the people lived and suffered till 1636. At this time, inflamed to madness by the oppressive conduct of Sir John Harvey, the then governor, they seized him, and sent him prisoner to England. Their conduct in this was so displeasing to the king, Charles I., successor of James I., that he sent Harvey back. But, in 1639, the king appointed Sir William Berkley to succeed him, with instructions again to allow the Virginians to elect representatives. (For the continuation of the history of Virginia, see *Sec.* 45.)

20. It has been stated that the lands upon which the Plymouth colony settled, were granted by the crown to "the Council of Plymouth," in England, in November, 1620. This was the same month that the Puritans had arrived in the country. (*Sec.* 13.) Being apprized of this grant, the colony, in 1626, began to take measures to purchase these lands. The negotiations for this purpose ended the next year in a patent, which the company granted them for one thousand eight hundred pounds sterling, with ample powers of government.

The government of the colony was at first formed and conducted according to a voluntary compact, entered into before landing. (*Sec.* 12.) Till the year 1624, it consisted of a governor and one assistant only. From this period, five were annually chosen, the governor having a double vote. The number of assistants was afterwards increased to seven. The laws of the colony were enacted, and the affairs of government conducted, by these

officers, for near twenty years. In 1639, the towns in this colony, for the first time, sent deputies. The colony continued distinct near seventy years, until 1691, when, by charter of William and Mary, it was united to the colony of Massachusetts and the Province of Maine.

21. In 1628, the foundation was laid for another colony in New England, by the name of the *Colony of Massachusetts Bay*. At this time, several enterprising men purchased of the council of Plymouth the territory which constituted the above colony. The same year, the purchasers sent out Mr. John Endicot, with about a hundred adventurers, to commence a settlement, which they effected at *Salem*, at that time called, by the Indians, Naumkeak.

The territory included in the colony of Massachusetts Bay, extended three miles north of the Merrimac river, and three miles south of Charles river, and east and west from the Atlantic to the South sea.)

The settlement of Massachusetts Bay, like the colony of Plymouth, was commenced by non-conformists, for the purpose of enjoying greater religious liberty in matters of worship and discipline. Among the most active in this enterprise was Mr Endicot, already mentioned, and Mr. White, a pious and active minister of Dorchester, in England.

22. The following year, 1629, the Massachusetts company was confirmed by King Charles in their title to the soil; and, at the same time, received the powers of civil government. They were incorporated by the name of "the Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay, in New England." Soon after, a form of government for the new colony was settled. Mr. Endicot, already in the colony, was appointed governor.

On the appointment of Mr. Endicot as governor, an expedition was fitted out for the purpose of giving an impulse to the colony. Five ships were provided, which, being laden with cattle and other necessaries, sailed from England, with nearly three hundred planters, and arrived at Salem in June. They found the settlement in prosperous circumstances; yet, not being themselves pleased with the situation of Salem, two hundred of them removed, and settled at a place which they called *Charlestown*.

23. In the month of August of the same year, it was determined by the company in England, that the gov-

ernment and the patent of the plantation should be transferred from London to Massachusetts Bay. At the same time, a new election of officers for the colony took place. John Winthrop was chosen governor, and Thomas Dudley deputy-governor. Soon after their appointment, they sailed with a large company, some of whom settled at Charlestown, others at Boston, and in towns adjacent.

On the arrival of Gov. Winthrop, in June, who continued from that time to his death the head and father of the colony, he found the plantation in a distressed and suffering state. In the preceding autumn, the colony contained about three hundred inhabitants. Eighty of these had died, and a great part of the survivors were in a weak and sickly state. Their supply of corn was not sufficient for more than a fortnight, and their other provisions were nearly exhausted.

In addition to these evils, they were informed that a combination of the various tribes of Indians was forming for the utter extirpation of the colony. Their strength was weakness, but their confidence was in God, and they were not forsaken. Many of the planters, who arrived this summer, after long voyages, were in a sickly state, and disease continued to rage through the season. By the close of the year, the number of deaths exceeded two hundred. Among these were several of the principal persons in the colony. Mr. Higginson, the venerable minister of Salem, spent about a year with that parent church, and was removed to the church in glory. His excellent colleague, Mr. Skelton, did not long survive him. Mr. Johnson, one of the assistants, and his lady, who was a great patroness of the settlement, died soon after their arrival. Of the latter, an early historian observes, "She left an earthly paradise, in the family of an earldom, to encounter the sorrows of a wilderness, for the entertainments of a pure worship in the house of God; and then immediately left that wilderness for the heavenly paradise."

The succeeding winter commenced in December with great severity. Few of the houses which had been erected were comfortable, and the most of them were miserable coverings. Unused to such severities of climate, the poor people suffered severely from the cold. Many were frozen to death. The inconveniences of their accommodations increased the diseases which continued to prevail among them.

But their constancy had not yet been brought to the last trial. During the continuance of the severe season, their stock of provisions began to fail. Those who wanted were supplied by those who possessed, as long as any remained. A poor man came to the

governor to complain, and was informed that the last bread of his house was in the oven. Many subsisted upon shell-fish, ground-nuts, and acorns, which, at that season, could not have been procured but with the utmost difficulty.

In consideration of their perilous condition, the sixth day of February was appointed for a day of public fasting and prayer, to seek deliverance from God. On the fifth of February, the day before the appointed fast, the ship Lion, which had been sent to England for supplies, arrived laden with provisions. She had a stormy passage, and rode amidst heavy drifts of ice, after entering the harbor. These provisions were distributed among the people, according to their necessities, and their appointed fast was exchanged for a day of general thanksgiving.*

24. In 1632, Charles I. completed a patent to Cœcilius Calvert, otherwise called Lord Baltimore, which had been designed for his father, by which was conveyed to him a tract of country on the Chesapeake bay, which, in honor of Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry the Great of France, he named MARYLAND.

George Calvert, the father, having embraced the Roman Catholic religion, found his situation in England so unpleasant, that, for the sake of enjoying his religious opinions in peace, he made a visit to America, and having explored the territory above mentioned, returned to England, for the purpose of procuring a patent of it. Before it was completed, he died, and the patent was made out to his son, Cecil. By this patent, the latter came into possession of the country from the Potomac to the 40th degree of north latitude. This grant covered the land which had long before been granted to Virginia, as what was now granted to Lord Baltimore was in part subsequently given to William Penn. In consequence of these arbitrary acts of the crown, long and obstinate contentions arose between the descendants of Penn and Lord Baltimore.

25. In 1633, Lord Baltimore appointed his brother, Leonard Calvert, governor of the province, who, with about two hundred planters, mostly Roman Catholics, left England near the close of this year, and arriving, in 1634, at the mouth of the river Potomac, purchased of the Indians Yoamaco, a considerable village, where they formed a settlement, to which they gave the name of St. Mary.

The charter granted to the inhabitants of Maryland conferred on them more ample privileges than had been conferred on any

* Robbins's New England Fathers.

other colony in America. Among these privileges was that of passing laws without any reservation on the part of the crown, to revoke them. This and other favorable circumstances contributed to the rapid settlement of Maryland.

At first, when few in number, the freemen assembled in person, and enacted the necessary laws; but in 1639, it was found expedient to constitute a "house of assembly." This consisted of representatives chosen by the people, of others appointed by the proprietor, and of the governor and secretary, who sat together. In 1650, the legislative body was divided into an upper and lower house; the members of the former being appointed by the proprietor; those of the latter by the people.

Few of the colonies escaped intestine troubles; nor did Maryland form an exception. In 1645, a rebellion broke out, chiefly caused by one William Clayborne. This man, under license from the king, had, as early as 1631, formed a settlement on the island of Kent; and when the grant was made to Lord Baltimore, he refused to submit to his authority. Being convicted of murder and other high crimes, he fled; but, in 1645, he returned, and, heading a party of insurgents, for a time overthrew the government. The next year, order was restored, and Calvert, the governor, who had been obliged to flee, resumed his office.

In 1652, Lord Baltimore was deprived of the government, by the English parliament; but at the restoration, in 1660, Philip Calvert was appointed governor, and the ancient order of things was restored. In 1689, on the accession of William and Mary, persons in their interest usurped the government of the colony; but in 1716, the proprietor was restored to his rights. From this time until the revolution, he continued to enjoy them; but, at this latter date, the people assumed the government to themselves.

26. In 1633, the first house was erected in Connecticut. This was a trading-house at Windsor, the materials of which a party of Plymouth adventurers transported in a vessel up Connecticut river.

The first discoveries made of this part of New England were of its principal river, and the fine meadows lying upon its banks. Whether the Dutch at New Netherlands, or the people of New Plymouth, were the first discoverers of the river, is not certain. Both the English and Dutch claimed this honor, and both purchased and made a settlement of the lands upon it nearly at the same time.

In 1631, Wahquimicut, a sachem upon the river Connecticut, made a journey to Plymouth and Boston; earnestly soliciting the governors of each of the colonies to send men, to form settlements upon the river. He represented the country as exceed-

ingly fruitful, and promised that he would supply the English, if they would make a settlement there, with corn annually, and give them eighty beaver-skins. He urged that two men might be sent to view the country. Had this invitation been accepted, it might have prevented the Dutch claim to any part of the lands upon the river, and opened an extensive trade in hemp, furs, and deer-skins, with all the Indians upon it, and far into Canada.

The governor of Massachusetts treated the sachem and his company with generosity, but paid no further attention to his proposal. Mr. Winslow, the governor of Plymouth, judging it worthy of attention, himself made a journey to Connecticut, discovered the river, and the lands adjacent.

Two years from this time, the people of Plymouth began to make preparations for erecting a trading-house, and establishing a small company upon the river. In the mean time, the Dutch, having heard of the intended enterprise of the people of Plymouth, sent a party to the river, who erected a fort, where the city of Hartford is now situated.

Having at length prepared the frame of a house, William Holmes, who commanded the Plymouth expedition, proceeded in a vessel with his party for Connecticut. He had a commission from the governor of Plymouth, and a chosen company to accomplish his design. After entering the river, he found that the Dutch had entered before him, constructed a light fort, and planted two pieces of cannon. This was erected at the place since called Hartford. The Dutch forbid Holmes going up the river, stood by their cannon, and ordered him to strike his colors, or they would fire upon him. But being a man of spirit, he assured them that he had a commission from the governor of Plymouth to go up the river, and that he must obey his orders. They poured out their threats; but he proceeded, and, landing on the west side of the river, erected his house below the mouth of the little river in Windsor. The house was covered with the utmost despatch, and fortified with palisades. The Dutch, considering them as intruders, sent, the next year, a band of seventy men to drive them from the country; but finding them strongly posted, they relinquished the design.

27. In the autumn of 1635, a company, consisting of sixty men, women, and children, from the settlements of Newtown and Watertown, in Massachusetts, commenced their journey through the wilderness to Connecticut river. On their arrival, they settled at Windsor, Wethersfield, and Hartford.

They commenced their journey on the 15th of October. A wide wilderness spread before them. With incredible difficulty

they made their way through swamps and rivers, over hills and mountains. So long were they on their journey, and so much time was spent in passing the river, and in getting over their cattle, that, after all their exertions, winter came upon them before they were prepared. This was an occasion of great distress and damage to the planters. By the 15th of November, Connecticut river was frozen over, and the snow was so deep, and the season so tempestuous, that a considerable number of the cattle, which had been driven from Massachusetts, could not be brought across the river. The people had so little time to prepare their huts and houses, and to erect sheds and shelters for their cattle, that the sufferings of man and beast were extreme.

It being impracticable to transport much provision or furniture through a pathless wilderness, they were put on board several small vessels, which were either cast away or did not arrive. Several vessels were wrecked on the coasts of New England, by the violence of the storms. Two shallops, laden with goods from Boston for Connecticut, were cast away, and the men, with every thing on board, lost. A vessel with six of the Connecticut people on board, which sailed from the river for Boston, early in November, was, about the middle of the month, cast away in Manamet bay. The men got on shore, and, after wandering ten days in a deep snow and a severe season, without meeting any human being, arrived, nearly spent with cold and fatigue, at New Plymouth.

About the first of December, provisions generally failed in the settlements on the river, and famine and death looked the inhabitants in the face. Some of them, driven by hunger, attempted their way, in this severe season, through the wilderness from Connecticut to Massachusetts. Of thirteen, in one company, who made this attempt, one, in passing the rivers, fell through the ice, and was drowned. The other twelve were ten days on their journey, and would all have perished had it not been for the assistance of the Indians. Such was the general distress early in December, that a considerable part of the new settlers were obliged to abandon their habitations. Seventy persons, men, women and children, determined to go down the river to meet their provisions, as the only expedient to preserve their lives. Not meeting with the vessels which they expected, they all went on board the Rebecca, a vessel of about sixty tons. This, two days before, was frozen in, twenty miles up the river; but, by the falling of a small rain, together with the tide, the ice became so broken, that she was enabled to get out. She ran, however, upon the bar, and the people were forced to unlade her to get her off. She was reladed, and in five days reached Boston.

The people who kept their stations on the river, suffered in an extreme degree. After all the help they were able to obtain, by

hunting and from the Indians, they were obliged to subsist on acorns, malt, and grains. Numbers of cattle, which could not be got over the river before winter, lived through without any thing but what they found in the woods and meadows. They wintered as well, or better, than those which were brought over, and for which all the provision possible was made. However, a great number of cattle perished. The Windsor people lost in this single article (about two hundred pounds sterling.) Their other losses were very considerable.*

28. During the same year, 1635, in which the above towns were settled in Connecticut, John Winthrop, son of the governor of Massachusetts, arrived from England, with a commission as governor of Connecticut, under Lord Say and Seal, and Lord Brooke, to whom the council of Plymouth had sold, in March, 1631, a patent of the territory.

This patent included that part of New England which extends from Narraganset river one hundred and twenty miles on a straight line, near the shore, towards the south-west, as the coast lies, towards Virginia, and within that breadth, from the Atlantic ocean and the South sea. This is the original patent of Connecticut.

Soon after Winthrop's arrival at Boston, he despatched a bark of thirty tons, with twenty men, to take possession of Connecticut river, and to build a fort at its mouth. This was accordingly erected, and called Saybrook fort. A few days after their arrival, a Dutch vessel from New Netherlands appeared, to take possession of the river; but, as the English had already mounted two cannon, their landing was prevented.

The next June, 1636, the Rev. Messrs. Hooker and Stone, with a number of settlers from Dorchester and Watertown, removed to Connecticut. With no guide but a compass, they made their way one hundred miles over mountains, through swamps and rivers. Their journey, which was on foot, lasted a fortnight, during which they lived upon the milk of their cows. They drove one hundred and sixty cattle. This party chiefly settled at Hartford. Mr. Hooker and Mr. Stone became the pastors of the church in that place, and were both eminent as men and ministers. The death of Mr. Hooker occurred in 1647. About the time of his departure, a friend, standing by, said, "Sir, you are going to receive the reward of all your labors." He replied, "Brother, I am going to receive *mercy*." Mr. Stone died in 1663.

* Robbins's New England Fathers.

29. This year (1636) Roger Williams, having been banished from the colony of Massachusetts in 1634, removed with his family to Mooshawsic, and began a plantation, which he called *Providence*. From this we date the settlement of RHODE ISLAND.

Mr. Williams, who thus commenced the settlement of Rhode Island, came from England in 1631; and, having resided a short time at Plymouth, removed to Salem, in Massachusetts, and became the pastor of the church in that place. During his connection with the people of Salem, he promulgated opinions which were contrary to those prevalent at that day in the colonies, and among them, "that the civil magistrate is bound to afford equal protection to every denomination of Christians." On account of this doctrine, he was sentenced to depart out of the territory. At first he repaired to Seeconk, where he procured a grant of land from the Indians. "Being informed, however, by the governor of Plymouth, that the land was within the limits of that colony, he proceeded to Mooshawsic, where, in 1636, with those friends who followed him, he began a plantation. He purchased the land of the Indians, and, in grateful acknowledgment of the kindness of heaven, he called the place Providence. Acting in conformity with the wise and liberal principle, for avowing and maintaining which, he had suffered banishment, he allowed entire freedom of conscience to all who came within his borders. And to him must be given the glory of having first set a practical example of the equal toleration of all religious sects, in the same political community. His labors were not confined to his civilized brethren. He labored to enlighten, improve, and conciliate the savages. He learned their language, travelled among them, and gained the entire confidence of their chiefs. He had often the happiness, by his influence over them, of saving from injury the colony which had proclaimed him an outlaw, and driven him into the wilderness."*

In 1638 William Coddington and seventeen others, being persecuted for their religious tenets in Massachusetts, followed Mr. Williams to Providence. By his advice, they purchased of the Indians the island Aquetneck, and began a settlement on the northern part of it. Others followed the next summer, and commenced another settlement on the south-western side—dividing the island into two townships, Portsmouth and Newport. They formed themselves into a body politic, and elected Mr. Coddington chief magistrate.

In 1640, the inhabitants of Providence agreed upon a form of government. Rhode Island, so called from a fancied resemblance to the ancient island of Rhodes, soon began to be exter-

* History of the United States.

sively settled, both on account of its natural fertility, and also on account of the religious freedom allowed to all denominations.

In 1644, Roger Williams visited England, as agent of the settlers, and obtained of the Earl of Warwick, one of the Plymouth company, a free charter of incorporation for Providence and Rhode Island plantations.

In 1663, a royal charter was granted to them, by Charles II. This charter constituted an assembly, consisting of a governor, deputy-governor, and ten assistants, with the representatives from the several towns, all to be chosen by the freemen.

In 1686, Andros being made governor of New England, he dissolved the charter of Rhode Island, and appointed a council to assist him in governing the colony. Three years after, William, Prince of Orange, ascended the throne of England, and Andros was seized and imprisoned; (*Period* iii. *Sec.* 1.) upon which the freemen assembled at Newport, and, having resumed their charter, restored all the officers whom Andros had displaced.

30. The year 1637 is remarkable, in the history of Connecticut, for the war with the Pequots, a tribe of Indians, whose principal settlement was on a hill, in the present town of Groton.

Prior to this time, the Pequots had frequently annoyed the infant colony, and in several instances had killed some of its inhabitants. In March of this year, the commander of Saybrook fort, with twelve men, was attacked by them, and three of his party killed. In April, another portion of this tribe assaulted the people of Wethersfield, as they were going to their fields to labor, and killed six men and three women. Two girls were taken captive by them, and twenty cows were killed.

In this perilous state of the colony, a court was summoned at Hartford, May 1. After mature deliberation, it was determined that war should be commenced against the Pequots.

Ninety men, nearly half the fencible men of the colony, were ordered to be raised; forty-two from Hartford, thirty from Windsor, and eighteen from Wethersfield.

With these troops, together with seventy river and Mohegan Indians, Capt. Mason, to whom the command of the expedition was given, sailed down the river Connecticut to Saybrook. Here a plan of operations was formed, agreeably to which, on the 26th of May, about the dawn of day, Capt. Mason surprised Mystic, one of the principal forts of the enemy, in the present town of Stonington. On their near approach to the fort, a dog barked, and an Indian, who now discovered them, cried out, "O wanux! O wanux!" Englishmen! Englishmen!

The troops instantly pressed forward, and fired. The destruction of the enemy soon became terrible, but they rallied at length,

and made a manly resistance. After a severe and protracted conflict, Capt. Mason and his troops being nearly exhausted, and victory still doubtful, he cried out to his men, *We must burn them!*

At the same instant, seizing a firebrand, he applied it to a wigwam. The flames spread rapidly on every side; and as the sun rose upon the scene, it showed the work of destruction to be complete. Seventy wigwams were in ruins, and between five and six hundred Indians lay bleeding on the ground, or smouldering in the ashes.

But, though the victory was complete, the troops were now in great distress. Besides two killed, sixteen of their number were wounded. Their surgeon, medicines, and provisions, were on board some vessels, on their way to Pequot harbor, now New London. While consulting what should be done in this emergency, how great was their joy to descry their vessels standing directly towards the harbor, under a prosperous wind!

Soon after, a detachment of nearly two hundred men, from Massachusetts and Plymouth, arrived to assist Connecticut in prosecuting the war.

Sassacus, the great sachem of the Pequots, and his warriors, were so appalled at the destruction of Mystic, that they fled towards Hudson's river. The troops pursued them as far as a great swamp in Fairfield, where another action took place, in which the Indians were entirely vanquished.

This was followed by a treaty with the remaining Pequots, about two hundred in number, agreeably to which they were divided among the Narragansetts and Mohegans.

Thus terminated a conflict, which, for a time, was eminently distressing to the colonies. This event of peace was celebrated throughout New England, by a day of thanksgiving and praise.

31. During the expedition against the Pequots, the English became acquainted with Quinnapiak, or *New Haven;* and the next year, 1638, the settlement of that town was effected. This, and the adjoining towns, soon after settled, were distinguished by the name of the COLONY OF NEW HAVEN.

Among the founders of this colony, which was the fourth in New England, was Mr. John Davenport, for some time a distinguished minister in London. To avoid the indignation of the persecuting Archbishop Laud, in 1633, he fled to Holland. Hearing, while in exile, of the prosperity of the New England settlements, he meditated a removal to America. On his return to England, Mr. Theophilus Eaton, an eminent merchant in London, with Mr. Hopkins, afterwards governor of Connecticut,

and several others, determined to accompany him. They arrived in Boston in June, 1637.

This company were inclined to commence a new plantation, and lay the foundation of a separate colony. Though the most advantageous offers were made them by the government of Massachusetts to choose any place within their jurisdiction, they preferred a place without the limits of the existing colonies. They accordingly fixed upon New Haven as the place of their future residence, and on the 18th of April, they kept their first Sabbath in the place, under a large oak tree, where Mr. Davenport preached to them.

32. The following year, January 14, 1639, the three towns on Connecticut river, Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield, finding themselves without the limits of the Massachusetts patent, met, and formed themselves into a distinct commonwealth, and adopted a constitution.

This constitution, which has been much admired, and which, for more than a century and a half, underwent little alteration, ordained that there should annually be two general assemblies, one in April, the other in September. In April, the officers of government were to be elected by the freemen, and to consist of a governor, deputy-governor, and five or six assistants. The towns were to send deputies to the general assemblies. Under this constitution, the first governor was John Haynes, and Roger Ludlow the first deputy-governor.

33. The example of the colony of Connecticut, in forming a constitution, was followed, the next June, by the colony of New Haven. Both constitutions were essentially alike.

In October following, the government was organized, when Mr. Eaton was chosen governor. To this office he was annually elected, till his death, in 1657. No one of the New England colonies was so much distinguished for good order and internal tranquillity as the colony of New Haven. Her principal men were distinguished for their wisdom and integrity, and directed the affairs of the colony with so much prudence, that she was seldom disturbed by divisions within, or by aggressions from the Indians from without.

Having been bred to mercantile employments, the first settlers belonging to this colony were inclined to engage in commercial pursuits; but in these they sustained several severe losses; and, among others, that of a new ship of one hundred and fifty tons, which was foundered at sea, in 1647, and which was freighted with

a valuable cargo, and manned with seamen and passengers from many of the best families in the colony. This loss discouraged, for a time, their commercial pursuits, and engaged their attention more particularly in the employments of agriculture.

34. This same year, 1639, Sir Ferdinando Gorges obtained of the crown a distinct charter, in confirmation of his own grant (*Sec.* 18) of all the lands from Piscataqua to Sagadahoc, styled the PROVINCE OF MAINE; soon after which, he formed a system of government for the province, and incorporated a city near the mountain Agamenticus, in York, by the name of Georgeana; but neither the province nor city flourished. In 1652, the province was taken under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, by the request of the people of Maine, and continued in this connection till 1820, when it became a separate and independent state.

It would exceed our limits to examine the different grants of territory, which were made, at different times, of the state of Maine. In 1652, at the time the province was taken under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, it was made a county by the name of Yorkshire. It had the privilege of sending deputies to the general court at Boston. Massachusetts laid claim to the province, as lying within her charter of 1628, and, after various controversies, the territory was incorporated with her in 1691. In 1786, 1787, 1802, and 1816, efforts were made by a portion of the people of Maine to become separate from Massachusetts proper; but to this a majority of the inhabitants were averse. In 1818, however, this measure was effected; and, on the 3d of March, 1820, the district, by an act of congress, became an independent state.

35. The next event of importance in our history, is the union of the colonies of Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut and New Haven, by the name of THE UNITED COLONIES OF NEW ENGLAND. The articles of this confederation, which had been agitated for three years, were signed May 19th, 1643.

To this union the colonies were strongly urged, by a sense of common danger from the Indians, (a general combination of whom was expected,) and by the claims and encroachments of the Dutch, at Manhattan, New York.

By these articles of union, each colony retained its distinct and separate government. No two colonies might be united into one, nor any colony be received into the confederacy, without the consent of the whole. Each colony was to elect two commissioners, who should meet annually, and at other times, if necessary; and should determine "all affairs of war and peace, of leagues, aids, charges, and numbers of men for war," &c. Upon notice that any colony was invaded, the rest were immediately to despatch assistance.

This union subsisted more than forty years, until the charters of the colonies were either taken away, or suspended, by James II. and his commissioners.

In 1648, Rhode Island petitioned to be admitted to this confederacy, but was denied, unless she would be incorporated with Plymouth, and lose her separate existence. This she refused, and was consequently excluded.

The effects of this union on the New England colonies were, in a high degree, salutary. On the completion of it, several Indian sachems, among whom were the chiefs of the Narragansett and Mohegan tribes, came forward and submitted to the English government. The colonies also became formidable, by means of it, to the Dutch. This union was also made subservient to the civil and religious improvement of the Indians.

Prior to this period, Mr. Mayhew and the devoted Elliot had made considerable progress towards civilizing the Indians, and converting them to Christianity. They had learned the Indian language, and had preached to the Indians in their own tongue.

Upon a report in England of what these men had done, a society was formed for propagating the gospel among the Indians, which sent over books, money, &c. to be distributed by the commissioners of the United Colonies.

The Indians, at first, made great opposition to Christianity; and such was their aversion to it, that, had they not been overawed by the United Colonies, it is probable they would have put to death those among them who embraced it. Such, however, were the ardor, energy and ability of Messrs. Mayhew and Elliot, aided by the countenance and support of government, and blessed by Providence, that, in 1660, there were ten towns of converted Indians in Massachusetts. In 1695, there were not less than three thousand adult Indian converts in the islands of Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket.

36. 1662. The colony of Connecticut, having petitioned King Charles II. through Governor Winthrop, for a charter of incorporation, his majesty, in accordance with their wishes, issued his letters patent, April 2d, constituting them a body corporate and politic, by the

name of *The Governor and Company of the English Colony of Connecticut, in New England, in America.*

The territory granted to Lord Say and Seal, and Lord Brooke, in 1631, (*Sec.* 28,) and confirmed by this charter to Connecticut, was bounded east by Narragansett river; south by Long Island sound; north by Massachusetts; and extended west to the Pacific ocean.

The charter of Connecticut ordained that there should be a governor, deputy-governor, and twelve assistants, to be chosen annually. The charter instituted two general assemblies for each year, to consist of the above officers, and deputies from the towns; the former to compose the upper, and the deputies the lower, house. The government under the charter was essentially the same with that which the people had themselves adopted in 1639, (*Sec.* 32,) and continued to be the constitution of the colony and state of Connecticut, until the year 1818, when a convention was assembled which framed a new constitution.

This charter included the colony of New Haven; but not being agreeable to that colony, it did not unite with Connecticut until two years after. The granting of a charter to Connecticut was followed, the next year, 1663, by a similar grant to Rhode Island and Providence plantations, as already noticed. (*Sec.* 29.)

37. In 1664, Charles II. granted to his brother, the Duke of York and Albany, the territory included in the several colonies of New York, New Jersey, and Delaware. In the course of the same year, the latter despatched an expedition, under command of Col. Richard Nichols, to the Dutch colony at Manhattan, which had, for many years, denied the right of the English to control it. This expedition arrived at Manhattan in August, and demanded a surrender of the territory to his English majesty. The Dutch governor, being unprepared for defence, complied with the demand, and the whole country passed into the hands of the English. In honor of the duke, the two principal Dutch settlements were now named New York and Albany.

The first settlement of the Dutch at Manhattan, in 1613, and their surrender to the English the same year, have already been noticed. (*Sec.* 9.) Soon after, however, they revolted; and, the claims of the English being neglected, they continued to manage for themselves, until the above year, 1664.

Nichols having entered the harbor, Stuyvesant, the Dutch gov

ernor, sent a letter to him, to desire the reason of his approach. To this the latter replied, the next day, by a summons to surrender. Stuyvesant, determining on a defence, refused to surrender; but, at length, finding himself without the means of resistance, and that many of the people were desirous of passing under the jurisdiction of the English, he surrendered the government into the hands of Col. Nichols, who promised to secure to the governor and inhabitants, their liberties and estates, with all the privileges of English subjects. The administration of Nichols continued for three years, and was marked by great integrity and moderation. Upon his return to England, in 1667, he was succeeded by Col. Lovelace, who administered the government with equal moderation.

38. A short time previous to the surrender of the Dutch, the Duke of York conveyed to Lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret the territory of New Jersey. This name was given it in compliment to Carteret, who had been governor of the Isle of Jersey, in the English channel. Soon after the grant, but before it was known, three persons from Long Island purchased of the natives a tract, which was called Elizabethtown grant, and a settlement was begun at Elizabethtown. Other towns were soon settled by emigrants from the colonies and from Europe. In consequence of these opposite claims to the territory, much discord prevailed between the proprietors and the inhabitants.

The first settlement within the limits of New Jersey was made by the Danes, about the year 1624, at a place called Bergen. Some Dutch families, also, about the same time, planted themselves on the Jersey side, near New York. In 1626, a colony of Swedes and Finns purchased land on both sides of the river Delaware, and formed a settlement on its western bank. In 1640, the English began a plantation at Elsingburgh, on its eastern bank. But this was soon after broken up by the Swedes, with the assistance of the Dutch from Manhattan. From this time, until 1655, the Swedes held possession of the country on both sides of the Delaware, when the Dutch governor, Stuyvesant, subdued them. The Dutch now held possession until 1664, when the territory passed into the hands of the English.

39. The next year, 1665, Philip Carteret, who had been appointed governor by the proprietors, arrived at Elizabethtown, which he made the seat of government.

He administered the government according to a constitution which the proprietors had formed.

This constitution ordained a free assembly, consisting of a governor, council, and representatives; the latter to be chosen by each town. The legislative power resided in the assembly; the executive in the governor and council. (See *Sec.* 46.)

40. DELAWARE was also included in the grant to the Duke of York. At this time, it was in possession of the Dutch; but an expedition being sent against it under Sir Robert Carr, it surrendered, October 1, 1664; soon after which it was placed under the authority of the English governor of New York.

Delaware was first settled in 1627, by a number of Swedes and Finns, who, at the instance of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, emigrated to America. They landed at Cape Henlopen which, on account of its beauty, they called Paradise Point; the Delaware they named Swedeland Stream.

The Dutch at New Netherlands laid claim, however, to the territory; and mutual contests subsisted for a long time between them and the Swedes. After several times changing masters, the territory finally surrendered to the Dutch, who held possession of it at the time of the English expedition against it under Carr, in 1664. It was now considered a part of New York. In 1682, however, the Duke of York sold the town of New Castle, and the country twelve miles around it, to William Penn, and, some time after, the territory between New Castle and Cape Henlopen. These tracts, then known by the name of "Territories," constitute the present state of Delaware. Until 1703, they were governed as a part of Pennsylvania; but, at that time, they had liberty from the proprietor to form a separate and distinct assembly; the governor of Pennsylvania, however, still exercising jurisdiction over them. (*Sec.* 49.)

41. After the reduction of New York by Col. Nichols, (*Sec.* 37.) he, with Sir Robert Carr, George Cartwright, and Samuel Maverick, proceeded to New England, under a commission from King Charles, "to hear and determine complaints and appeals, in all causes, as well military as criminal and civil," within New England, and to proceed in all things for settling the peace and security of the country.

The conduct of these commissioners was exceeding-

ly arbitrary and offensive to the colonies.) Under pretext of executing their commission, they received complaints against the colonies from the Indians; required persons, against the consent of the people, to be admitted to the privileges of freemen, to church membership, and full communion; heard and decided in causes which had already been determined by the established courts; and gave protection to criminals. After involving the colonies in great embarrassment and expense, they were at length recalled, and the country saved from impending ruin.

42. The settlement which next claims our notice is that of CAROLINA, so called in honor of Charles IX., under whose patronage the coast had been discovered in 1563. The territory thus named included the lands between the 30th and 36th degrees of north latitude, and extending from the Atlantic ocean to the South sea. In 1663, this tract was conveyed by Charles II., king of England, to Lord Clarendon and seven others, with ample powers to settle and govern it.

Before the above grant to Clarendon, (between 1640 and 1650,) a settlement was begun in Albemarle county, by planters from Virginia and emigrants from other places. This settlement was placed under the superintendence of Gov. Berkley of Virginia.

The second settlement was made in 1665, near the mouth of Clarendon or Cape Fear river, by emigrants from Barbadoes, who invested Sir John Yeomans with the authority of governor. Both the above were within the present limits of North Carolina.

The third settlement was at Port Royal in the present limits of South Carolina, under direction of Governor Sayle, 1670. In 1671, he founded Old Charleston, on the banks of the river Ashley. In 1680, this location was abandoned for Oyster Point, on which was commenced the present city of Charleston.

In the year 1671, Gov. Sayle dying, Sir John Yeomans, governor of Clarendon, was appointed to succeed him. In consequence of this, the inhabitants of this latter settlement, within a few years, removed to that of Charleston, and the three governments consequently were reduced to two. Being widely separated, the distinctive names of North and South Carolina began to be used in respect to them.

During the administration of Gov. Sayle, a constitution, pre-

pared at the request of the proprietors, by the celebrated Mr. Locke, was attempted to be put in force.

By this constitution, a president of a palatine court, to consist of the proprietors, was to be chosen for life. An hereditary nobility was to be established, consisting of landgraves and caciques. A parliament, chosen once in two years, was to be held, consisting of the proprietors, of the nobility, and of representatives from each district. All were to meet in one apartment, and to have an equal voice. No business, however, could be proposed in parliament, until it had been debated in a grand council, to consist of the governor, nobility, and deputies of proprietors.

This constitution it was found impossible to reduce to practice. Great opposition was made to it; and in Albemarle an insurrection was occasioned by an attempt to enforce it. It was, therefore, at length, abandoned, and the former proprietary government restored. This latter sort of government continued from 1669 to 1719, when the charter was vacated by the crown, and the government taken under the royal protection. In 1729, the proprietors surrendered their right to the government, and interest in the soil, to the king, upon which the province was divided into North and South Carolina, and their governors and councils were appointed by the crown. (See *Period* III. *Sec.* 20.)

43. The year 1675 was distinguished for a memorable war, in New England, with the Indians, called ***King Philip's war***; by which the peace of the colonies was greatly disturbed, and their existence, for a time, seriously endangered.

For several years previous to the opening of the war, the Indians had regarded the English with growing jealousy. They saw them increasing in numbers, and rapidly extending their settlements. At the same time, their own hunting grounds were visibly narrowing, and their power and privileges sensibly decreasing. The prospect before them was humbling to the haughty descendants of the original lords of the soil.

The principal exciter of the Indians, at this time, against the English, was Philip, sachem of the Wampanoags, grandson and successor of Masassoit, who, fifty years before, had made a treaty with the colony of Plymouth. (*Sec.* 14.) The residence of Philip was at Mount Hope, in Bristol, Rhode Island.

The immediate cause of the war was the execution of three Indians by the English, whom Philip had excited to murder one Sausaman, an Indian missionary. Sausaman, being friendly to the English, had informed them that Philip, with several tribes, was plotting their destruction.

The execution of these Indians roused the anger of Philip, who immediately armed his men, and commenced hostilities. Their

first attack was made June 24th, upon the people of Swanzey, in Plymouth colony, as they were returning from public worship, on a day of humiliation and prayer, which had been appointed under an apprehension of an approaching war. Eight or nine persons were killed.

The country being immediately alarmed, the troops of the colony repaired to the defence of Swanzey. On the 28th a company of horse and a company of foot, with one hundred and ten volunteers from Boston, joined the Plymouth forces. The next morning an attack was made upon a party of Philip's men, who were pursued, and five or six of them killed. This resolute conduct of the English made a deep impression on the enemy. Philip, with his forces, left Mount Hope the same night; marking his route, however, with the burning of houses, and the scalping of the defenceless inhabitants.

It being known that the Narragansets favored the cause of Philip, he having sent his women and children to them for protection, the Massachusetts forces, under Capt. Hutchinson, proceeded forthwith into their country, either to renew a treaty with them, or to give them battle. Fortunately, a treaty was concluded, and the troops returned.

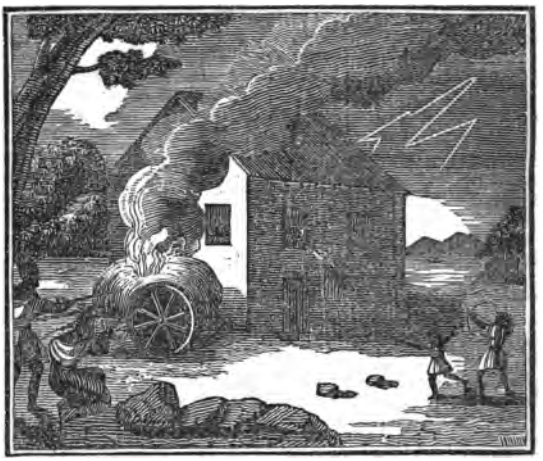
On the 17th of July, news arrived that Philip, with his warriors, was in a swamp at Pocasset, now Tiverton. The Massachusetts and Plymouth forces immediately marched to that place, and the next day resolutely charged the enemy in their recesses. As the troops entered the swamp, the Indians continued to retire. The English in vain pursued, till the approach of night, when the commander ordered a retreat. Many of the English were killed, and the enemy seemed to take courage.

It being impossible to encounter the Indians with advantage in the swamps, it was determined to starve them out; but Philip, apprehending their design, contrived to escape with his forces.

He now fled to the Nipmucks, a tribe in Worcester county, Massachusetts, whom he induced to assist him. This tribe had already commenced hostilities against the English; but, in the hope of reclaiming them, the governor and council sent Captains Wheeler and Hutchinson to treat with them. But the Indians, having intimation of their coming, lurked in ambush for them, fired upon them as they approached, killed eight men, and mortally wounded eight more, of whom Capt. Hutchinson was one.

The remainder of the English fled to Quaboag, Brookfield. The Indians, however, closely pursued them into the town, and burnt every house excepting the one in which the inhabitants had taken refuge. This house also, at length, they surrounded, and "for two days continued to pour a storm of musket balls upon it, and although great numbers passed through the walls, but one person was killed. With long poles they next thrust against it

brands and rags dipped in brimstone; they shot arrows of fire, they loaded a cart with flax and tow, and, with long poles fastened together, they pushed it against the house. Destruction seemed inevitable. The house was kindling, and the savages stood ready to destroy the first that should open the door to escape. At this awful moment, a torrent of rain descended, and suddenly extinguished the kindling flames.'



On the 4th of August, Major Willard, came to their relief, raised the siege, and destroyed a considerable number of the assailants.

During the month of September, Hadley, Deerfield, and Northfield, on Connecticut river, were attacked: several of the inhabitants were killed, and many buildings consumed. On the 18th, Capt. Lathrop, with several teams, and eighty young men, the flower of the county of Essex, were sent to Deerfield to transport a quantity of grain to Hadley. On their return, stopping to gather grapes at Muddy brook, they were suddenly attacked by near eight hundred Indians. Resistance was in vain; and seventy of these young men fell before the merciless enemy, and were buried in one grave. Capt. Mosely, who was at Deerfield, hearing the report of the guns, hastened to the spot, and, with a few men, attacked the Indians, killed ninety-six, and wounded forty, losing himself but two men.

Early in October, the Springfield Indians, who had hitherto been friendly to the English, concerted a plan, with the hostile tribes, to burn that town. Having, under cover of night, received two or three hundred of Philip's men into their fort, with their assistance they set fire to the town. The plot, however, was discovered so seasonably, that troops arrived from Westfield in time to save the town, excepting thirty-two houses, which had been previously consumed.

Soon after hostilities were commenced by Philip, the Tarrenteens began their depredations in New Hampshire and the Province of Maine. They robbed the boats and plundered the houses of the English. In September, they fell on Saco, Scarborough, and Kittery, killed between twenty and thirty of the inhabitants, and consigned their houses, barns and mills to the flames.

Elated with these successes, they next advanced towards Piscataqua, committing similar outrages at Oyster river, Salmon Falls, Dover and Exeter. Before winter, sixty of the English, in that quarter, were killed, and nearly as many buildings consumed.

The Eastern Indians, however, had real cause of complaint One cause was the cruel treatment practised upon the family of Squando, sachem of the Saco Indians, by a party of English seamen, who, having heard that Indian children could swim by instinct, overset their canoe, in which were Squando's squaw and infant child, for the purpose of testing the truth of the report. This act, wanton as well as childish, the savage justly resented; and the more so, as the infant some time after died, owing, as the chief imagined, to an injury which, at that time, it received. Added to this, several Indians having been enticed on board a vessel, had been iniquitously sold for slaves. To redress these and similar wrongs, the Indians commenced hostilities.

Notwithstanding the Narragansets had pledged themselves, by their treaty, not to engage in the war against the English, it was discovered that they were taking part with the enemy. It was deemed necessary, therefore, for the safety of the colonies, early to check that powerful tribe.

Accordingly, Gov. Winslow, of Plymouth, with about one thousand eight hundred troops from Massachusetts and Connecticut, and one hundred and sixty friendly Indians, commenced their march from Pettysquamscot, on the 19th of December, 1675, through a deep snow, towards the enemy, who were in a swamp about fifteen miles distant.

The army arrived at the swamp at one in the afternoon. Some Indians at the edge of the swamp were fired upon, but fled. The whole army now entered and pursued the Indians to their fortress.

This stood on a rising ground, in the middle of the swamp,

It was a work of great strength and labor, being composed of palisades, and surrounded by a hedge about sixteen feet in thickness. One entrance, only, led to the fort, through the surrounding thicket. Upon this the English providentially fell, and, without waiting to form, rushed impetuously towards the fort. The English captains entered first. The resistance of the Indians was gallant and warlike. Captains Johnson and Davenport, with many of their men, fell at the entrance. At length the English fell back, and were obliged to retreat out of the fort.

At this crisis, the army being on the point of a fatal repulse, some Connecticut men, on the opposite side of the fort, discovered a place destitute of palisades: they instantly sprang into the fort, fell upon the rear of the Indians, and, aided by the rest of the army, after a desperate conflict, achieved a complete victory. Six hundred wigwams were now set on fire, and an appalling scene ensued. Deep volumes of smoke rolled up to heaven, mingled with the dying shrieks of mothers and infants, which, with the aged and infirm, were consumed in the flames.

Even at this distant period, we cannot recall this scene without horror, and can justify the severity of our ancestors only by admitting its necessity for self-preservation.

The Indians in the fort were estimated at four thousand; of these, seven hundred warriors were killed, and three hundred died of their wounds; three hundred were taken prisoners, and as many women and children; the rest, except such as were consumed, fled.

The victory of the English, complete as it was, was purchased with blood. Six brave captains fell; eighty of the troops were killed or mortally wounded; and one hundred and fifty were wounded who recovered.

From this defeat the Indians never recovered. They were not yet, however, effectually subdued. During the winter, they continued their savage work of murdering and burning. The towns of Lancaster, Medfield, Weymouth, Groton, Springfield, Northampton, Sudbury, and Marlborough, in Massachusetts, and of Warwick and Providence in Rhode Island, were assaulted, and some of them partly, and others wholly, destroyed. In March, Captain Pierce, with fifty English, and twenty friendly Indians, were attacked, the former of whom were all slain, and nearly all of the latter. In April, Capt. Wadsworth, while marching with fifty men to the relief of Sudbury, was surrounded, and the whole were either killed on the spot, or reserved for long and distressing tortures.

The success of the Indians, during the winter, had been great; but on the return of spring, the tide turned against them. The Narraganset country was scoured, and many of the natives were killed, among whom was Canonchet, their chief sachem.

On the 12th of August, 1676, the finishing stroke was given to the war in the United Colonies, by the death of Philip. After his flight from Mount Hope, he had attempted to rouse the Mohawks against the English. To effect this purpose, he killed, at various times, several of that tribe, and charged it upon the English. But, his iniquity being discovered, he was obliged hastily to flee, and returned to Mount Hope.

Tidings of his return being brought to Captain Church, a man who had been of eminent service in this war, and who was better able than any other person to provide against the wiles of the enemy, he immediately proceeded to the place of Philip's concealment, near Mount Hope, accompanied by a small body of men. On his arrival, which was in the night, he placed his men in ambushes round the swamp, charging them not to move till daylight, that they might distinguish Philip, should he attempt to escape. Such was his confidence of success, that, taking Major Sandford by the hand, he said, "It is scarcely possible that Philip should escape." At that instant, a bullet whistled over their heads, and a volley followed.

The firing proceeded from Philip and his men, who were now in view. Perceiving his peril, the savage chief, hoping to effect his escape, hastily seized his powder-horn and gun, and fled; but, directing his course towards a spot where an Englishman and an Indian lay concealed, the former levelled his gun; but, missing fire, the Indian drew, and shot him through the heart.

Capt. Church ordered him to be beheaded and quartered. The Indian who executed this order, pronounced the warrior's epitaph: "You have been one very great man. You have made many a man afraid of you. But so big as you be, I will now chop you to pieces."

Thus fell a savage hero and patriot—of whose transcendent abilities our history furnishes melancholy evidence. The advantage of civilized education, and a wider theatre of action, might have made the name of Philip of Mount Hope as memorable as that of Alexander or Cæsar.

After the death of Philip, the war continued in the Province of Maine, till the spring of 1678. But westward, the Indians, having lost their chiefs, wigwams, and provisions, and perceiving further contest vain, came in singly, by tens, and by hundreds, and submitted to the English.

Thus closed a melancholy period in the annals of New England history; during which six hundred men, the flower of her strength, had fallen; twelve or thirteen towns had been destroyed, and six hundred dwelling-houses consumed. Every eleventh family was houseless, and every eleventh soldier had sunk to his grave. So costly was the inheritance which our fathers have transmitted to us!

44. The grant of the territory of New York, by Charles II., to his brother the Duke of York, in 1664, has already been noticed, (*Sec.* 37,) as also its capture from the Dutch, the same year. In 1673, a war commencing between England and Holland, the latter sent a small fleet to New York, to which the town immediately surrendered.

The following year, 1674, the war terminated in a treaty between England and Holland. By this treaty New York was restored to the English. To prevent controversy about his title to the territory, the Duke of York took out a new patent, and appointed Sir Edmund Andros governor, who entered upon the duties of his appointment in October of the same year.

The administration of Andros, however, was arbitrary and severe. He admitted the people to no share in legislation, but ruled them by laws to which they had never given their assent.

Connecticut also experienced the weight of his oppression and despotism. That part of her territory west of Connecticut river, although long before granted to the colony of Connecticut, was included in the grant to the Duke of York. By virtue of this grant, Andros now claimed jurisdiction over the territory, and in July, 1675, made an attempt with an armed force to take possession of Saybrook Fort.

The governor and council of Connecticut, having notice of his design, despatched Capt. Bull to defend the fort. On the arrival of Andros at the mouth of the river, after making a show of force, he invited Capt. Bull to a conference. This was granted; but no sooner had he landed, than he attempted to read his commission and the duke's patent. This Capt. Bull firmly and positively forbid; and Sir Edmund, finding the colony determined, at all events, not to submit to his government, relinquished his design, and sailed for Long Island.

45. The year 1676, so distinguished, in the annals of New England, for the termination of Philip's war, was not much less distinguished, in respect to Virginia, by an insurrection known by the name of "Bacon's rebellion," the evil effects of which lasted more than thirty years. The principal causes of this rebellion are said to have been the oppressive restrictions imposed upon

their commerce—the granting of large tracts of land by Gov. Berkley to his favorites, which belonged to the colony—and the imposition of extravagant taxes.

The dissolution of the charter of Virginia by James I., in 1624, and the subsequent appointment of Sir William Berkley, as governor, by Charles I., with the privilege to the people of electing their own representatives, have been noticed *Sec.* 24. For this privilege they were so grateful, that the Virginians continued faithful to the royal cause, even after Cromwell had usurped the government. This loyalty brought upon them the vengeance of parliament in 1652, at which time a fleet was despatched to reduce them to submission. At this time, Gov. Berkley was obliged to retire.

About the time of Cromwell's death, but before that event took place, the Virginians proclaimed Charles II., and invited Berkley to resume his authority. On the accession of Charles, he confirmed Berkley in his office. But from this time, the conduct of the governor was odious and oppressive. Agents were sent to England, to lay their grievances at the foot of the throne; but agents were unsuccessful, and, at length, the discontent of the people ripened into a formidable insurrection.

The head of the insurgents was Nathaniel Bacon, an Englishman, who, soon after his arrival, had been appointed a member of the council. He was a young man of commanding person, and distinguished for ambition, energy and enterprise.

The colony, at this time, being engaged in war with the Susquehannah Indians, Bacon despatched a messenger to Gov Berkley, requesting a commission to proceed against them. This commission the governor refused, and, at the same time, ordered Bacon to dismiss his men, and, on penalty of being declared a rebel, to appear before himself and the council. Exasperated by such treatment, Bacon, without disbanding his force, proceeded, in a sloop, with forty of them, to Jamestown. Here a sharp contention ensued, upon which Berkley illegally suspended him from the council. Bacon departed in a rage, with his sloop and men; but, through the agency of the governor, he was not long after seized and brought to Jamestown.

Finding that he had dismissed Bacon from the council illegally, he again admitted him, and treated him with a show of kindness. Upon this, Bacon renewed his request for a commission; but, receiving a denial, he privately left Jamestown, and, collecting six hundred volunteers, returned to demand of the assembly, then in session, the required commission. Being overawed, the assembly advised the governor to grant it. But, soon after Bacon had departed, the governor, by the same advice, issued a proclamation, denouncing him as a rebel.

Hearing what the governor had done, Bacon, instead of

marching against the Indians, returned to Jamestown, wreaking his vengeance upon all who opposed him. Finding it in vain to withstand him, the governor fled across the bay, and the council dispersed, leaving Bacon in possession of supreme power.

At length, the governor, with a small force, under command of Major Robert Beverly, crossed the bay to oppose the malecontents. Civil war had now commenced. Jamestown was burnt by Bacon's followers; various parts of the colony were pillaged, and the wives of those that adhered to the governor's party were carried to the camp of the insurgents.

In the midst of these commotions, it pleased the Supreme Ruler to withdraw Bacon by a natural death. The malecontents, thus left to recover their reason, now began to disperse. Two of Bacon's generals surrendered, and were pardoned, and the people quietly returned to their homes.

Upon this, Berkley resumed the government, and peace was restored. This rebellion formed an era of some note in the history of Virginia, and its unhappy effects were felt for thirty years. During its continuance, husbandry was almost entirely neglected, and such havock was made among all kinds of cattle, that the people were threatened with famine. Sir William Berkley, after having been forty years governor of Virginia, returned to England, where he soon after died.

Three years after, 1679, Lord Culpepper was sent over as governor, with certain laws prepared in conformity to the wishes of the ministry of England, and designed to be enacted by the assembly in Virginia. One of those laws provided for raising a revenue, for the support of government. It made the duties perpetual, and placed them under the direction of his majesty Out of the duties, Culpepper dishonestly took, as his salary, two thousand pounds, and one hundred and sixty pounds, in addition, for house-rent.

On presenting these laws to the assembly, Culpepper informed them that, in case they were passed, he had instructions to offer pardon to all who had been concerned in Bacon's rebellion; but, if not, he had commissions to try and hang them as rebels, and a regiment of soldiers on the spot to support him. Thus threatened, the assembly passed the laws.

From this period to the occurrence of the French war, no events are to be found, in the history of Virginia, of sufficient importance to be noticed in the present pages.

46. In the year 1676, the province of New Jersey was divided into East and West Jersey, and continued thus divided until 1702, when the proprietors surrendered the government to the crown, under Queen Anne, upon which, the two provinces were united into one, and

Lord Cornbury was appointed governor over this and the province of New York. This arrangement of a single governor for the two provinces continued till the year 1738, (although each chose a separate assembly;) but at this time, the people of New Jersey having petitioned for an alteration, his majesty appointed Lewis Morris to the chief magistracy of the latter province.

An account of the settlement of New Jersey, and the grant of it by the Duke of York to Lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret, in 1664, will be found at *Sec.* 38. In 1665, Carteret assumed the government, by agreement with Berkley. (*Sec.* 39.) In 1674, Lord Berkley made a conveyance of his half to John Fenwick, in trust for Edward Billinge and his assigns. Billinge, being in debt, presented his interest in the province to his creditors, William Jones and others, being appointed trustees to dispose of the lands.

In the division of 1676, Carteret took East Jersey, the government of which he retained; and the trustees of Billinge, West Jersey. The Duke of York, though he had conveyed away his powers of government, when he sold the province to Berkley and Carteret, in 1664, unjustly claimed West Jersey, as a dependency of New York. These claims of the duke, Sir Edmund Andros, his governor in America, attempted to assert, and actually extended his jurisdiction over the province. But, at length, through the discontent and remonstrances of the citizens, the subject was referred to commissioners, who decided against the Duke of York; upon which, in 1680, he relinquished his claims to the proprietors.

In 1682, Carteret, disgusted with the people, sold his right to East Jersey to William Penn and others, who immediately sold one half of it to the Earl of Perth and his associates. Robert Barclay, the celebrated author of "the Apology for the Quakers," was the next year made governor of East Jersey.

In 1686, both the Jerseys and New York were annexed to New England, in which connection they continued till the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, in 1689. "A government under the proprietors of both the Jerseys had become extremely disagreeable to the inhabitants, who, from various causes, became so uneasy, that the proprietors surrendered the government of East and West Jersey to the crown in 1702, which Queen Anne very readily accepted."

"The two provinces were now united into one, and Lord Cornbury was appointed governor over the united colony, and received his commission and instructions from the queen.

"The freemen chose the house of representatives, consisting

of twenty-four members, but the governor and council, consisting of twelve members, were appointed by the crown.

47. In 1677, a controversy which had subsisted for some time between the colony of Massachusetts and the heirs of Sir Ferdinando Gorges, relative to the province of Maine, was settled in England, and the colony adjudged to Gorges' heirs. Upon this, Massachusetts purchased the title for one thousand two hundred pounds sterling, and the territory, from that time till 1820, was a part of Massachusetts.

Both the colony of Massachusetts and the heirs of Gorges claimed the province of Maine; the former by virtue of her patent of 1628, (*Sec.* 21.) which was construed as including that territory; the claim of the latter was founded upon a charter granted to Gorges in 1639. (*Sec.* 34.)

48. Two years after this adjustment, viz. in 1679, a commission was made out, by order of Charles II., for the separation of New Hampshire from the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and its erection into a royal province. The form of government sent over by the king, ordained a president and council to govern the province, with an assembly, &c.; the assembly to be chosen by the people; the president and council to be appointed by the crown.

In 1629, the Plymouth company granted to John Mason the territory called New Hampshire. About the year 1640, the settlements now being considerable, the patent holders agreed to assign their right of jurisdiction to Massachusetts. The colony of New Hampshire, therefore, remained under the government of Massachusetts, until it was separated by the king's commission, in 1679.

The first legislative assembly, under the above commission, was convened March 16, 1680, when the colony of New Hampshire was declared to be independent of Massachusetts. This separation, however, was disagreeable to most of the people: for near forty years, they had enjoyed under Massachusetts the privilege of choosing their own rulers, and had derived great peace and harmony from an impartial government. Nor did this province long enjoy tranquillity. Mason, grandson of the Mason whom New Hampshire had been originally granted, came ov the next year, and demanded, by virtue of his claims to the soi a seat in the council. This being granted, he soon after retur

ed to England, and surrendered a part of his claims to the king, and mortgaged the remainder to Edward Cranfield, who was appointed lieutenant-governor, and shortly after repaired to New Hampshire.

It is necessary to add, that the Rev. Mr. Wheelright and others, in 1629, the same year that the grant was made to *Mason* by the Plymouth company, bought of the Indians a large tract of land in New Hampshire. The same land was, therefore, claimed under both these grants, and the foundation thus laid of serious disputes in the colony.

Cranfield, finding it for his interest to favor the claim of Mason to the province, soon called upon the inhabitants to take their leases under him. Suits were instituted against all the landholders who neglected this call, and the jurors, being selected by Cranfield, and interested in the result, uniformly gave judgment against them.

Under these oppressions, the people despatched an agent, with complaints to his majesty, against the governor. After a hearing by the lords of trade, the iniquitous conduct of Cranfield was represented to the king, who recalled him.

It may be proper to add, that the above controversy about the claims of Mason continued long to disturb the peace of the province, and was not finally terminated until the death of Samuel Allen, in 1715, to whom the heirs of Mason had sold their claim for seven hundred and fifty pounds: upon his demise, no one appeared to renew the claims, and the question dropped.

49. In [168]1, King Charles II. granted to William Penn, son of Admiral Penn, in consideration of debts due the latter, for services done to the crown, the territory of PENNSYLVANIA, so named by the king after Penn himself.

This patent encroached on the territory of Lord Baltimore in Maryland one whole degree or sixty-nine miles and a half; and on the north, nearly three hundred miles across the whole territory conveyed to Connecticut in 1631,* and confirmed by the royal charter of 1662. Hence arose contentions between the colonies of Pennsylvania and Connecticut about boundaries, that were not settled till a century after. Within a short time from the date of the grant by King Charles to Penn, two other conveyances were made to him by the Duke of York. One was a bill of sale of New-Castle, and a territory of twelve miles around it. The other was a bill granting a tract south of the former, as far as Cape Henlopen. These two deeds embraced

* See *Sec.* 36, where the boundaries of the territory granted to Connecticut are given.

the whole state of Delaware, known at that time by the name of the "Territories."

Having thus obtained possession of a valuable territory, and desirous of founding a colony upon it, Penn offered the lands for sale, at the rate of one thousand acres for twenty pounds, or at an annual rent of one penny per acre. Many persons, chiefly Quakers, were induced to purchase; and in the fall of the same year, three ships, with settlers, sailed for Pennsylvania. At the same time, Penn addressed a letter to the Indians, residing on the territory, assuring them of his pacific disposition, and his determination, should difficulties arise between them and the emigrants, to have them settled on principles of equity.

The next year, Penn published a form of government, by which the supreme power was lodged in a general assembly, to consist of a governor, council, and house of delegates; the council and house to be chosen by the freemen; the proprietor and governor to preside, and to have a treble voice in the council, which was to consist of seventy-two members.

It was also agreed, that every person of good moral character, professing his faith in Christ, should be a freeman, and capable of holding any office; and that none who believed in one God should be molested in his religion, or be compelled to attend or maintain religious worship.

In October, Penn, with two thousand planters, mostly Quakers, arrived at New-Castle, which was a part of the "Territories." Upon this tract he found already settled about three thousand Dutch, Swedes and Finns. He proceeded to Chester, where, in December, he convoked an assembly; but, so few delegates appearing, he ordered that, instead of seventy-two, three members only should constitute the council, and nine the house of assembly. This assembly annexed the Territories to the province.

Penn now entered into a treaty with the Indians, of whom he purchased large tracts of territory; at the same time, he commenced the city of Philadelphia, which, in one year, increased to a hundred houses and cottages.

Pennsylvania had a more rapid and prosperous settlement than any of the other colonies. This was doubtless owing, in part, to its healthful climate and fruitful soil; partly to the fact, that the great obstacles of settlement had been overcome by the other colonies; and partly to the religious tolerance, mildness, and equity, which characterized its laws and their administration.

In 1683, Penn convened a second assembly, which was held in Philadelphia; and, at the request of the freemen and delegates, granted them a *second* charter, by which eighteen persons were to form the council, and thirty-six the assembly. At this time it was ordained, "that, to prevent law-suits, three arbitrators, to be called peace-makers, should be chosen by the county courts, to hear and determine small differences between man and man—

that children should be taught some useful trade—that factors wronging their employers should make satisfaction, and one third over—that all causes of rudeness, cruelty and irreligion should be repressed—and that no man should be molested for his religious opinions." To these wholesome regulations Pennsylvania was indebted for her great prosperity and rapid settlement.

In 1684, Penn returned to England, leaving the administration of the government in the care of five commissioners. Soon after, James II. abdicated the throne. For this monarch Penn felt a sincere regard, and continued, even after his expulsion from the throne, to administer the colonial government in his name. This exciting the displeasure of William, successor of James, his friends caused Penn to be imprisoned several times; and the government of the colony was taken from him, and given to Col. Fletcher, governor of New York. But, some time after, the charges of disloyalty to William having been proved to be unfounded, he was permitted to resume the exercise of his rights; whereupon, he appointed William Markman to be his deputy-governor.

In 1699, Penn made a second visit to Pennsylvania. Finding discontents had crept in, in relation to the government, he humanely prepared a new charter, on still more liberal principles. This was offered Oct. 28, 1701, and accepted on the same day, by the people of Pennsylvania; but the "Territories," now Delaware, declining, they were allowed a distinct assembly, under the same governor. The assembly was first convened in 1703. (*Sec.* 40.)

Having thus settled affairs, Penn again returned to England, leaving the executive authority to be exercised by a deputy-governor. Discontentment, however, again appeared; and, at times, the deputy-governors became quite obnoxious to the people. Still the colony prospered: they lived in great harmony with the Indians, and increased in numbers and wealth.

At length, about the commencement of the revolutionary war, the people formed a new constitution, by which the proprietor was excluded from all participation in the government; and, by way of discharging all quit-rents due from the inhabitants, he was allowed 370,000 dollars.

50. In the year 1684, June 18, an event highly interesting to the colony of Massachusetts occurred in England. This was a decision, in the high court of chancery, that she had forfeited her charter, and that henceforth her government should be placed in the hands of the king.

The person chiefly instrumental in bringing about this event, was Edmund Randolph, a man who had long been the enemy of the colonies, and who, for several years, had filled the ears of the king with complaints against them for violating the acts of trade.

To answer to these complaints, Massachusetts repeatedly incurred the expense of sending agents to England, and of maintaining them there; but his majesty would accept of no conditions short of a surrender of her charter. As she would not make this surrender voluntarily, it was violently wrested from her.

Before King Charles had time to adjust the affairs of the colony, he died, and was succeeded by James II. Soon after his accession, similar proceedings took place against the other colonies. Rhode Island submitted, and relinquished her charter. Plymouth sent a copy of her charter to the king, with an humble petition, that he would restore it. Connecticut voted an address to his majesty, in which she prayed him to recall the writ that had been filed against her, and requested the continuance of her charter.

The petitions and remonstrances of the colonies were, however, of no avail. Both the heart and hand of the king were manifestly against them. After all their hardships and dangers in settling a wilderness, they had no other prospect before them than the destruction of their dearest rights, and no better security of life, liberty, and property, than the capricious will of a tyrant.

In pursuance of this cruel policy towards the colonies, two years after the charter of Massachusetts was vacated, King James commissioned and sent out Sir Edmund Andros as governor of all New England, Plymouth excepted.

On his arrival at Boston, Dec. 20, 1686, he entered upon his administration; which, at the commencement, was comparatively auspicious. In a few months, however, the fair prospect was changed. Among other arbitrary acts, restraints were laid upon the freedom of the press and marriage contracts. The liberty to worship after the Congregational mode was threatened, and

the fees of all officers of government were exorbitantly and oppressively enhanced.

In October, Sir Edmund and suite, with a guard of (about sixty) regular troops, went to Hartford, where the assembly of Connecticut was in session. He entered the house of the assembly, demanded the charter of Connecticut, and declared the colonial government to be dissolved.

Extremely reluctant to surrender the charter, the assembly intentionally protracted its debates till evening, when the charter was brought in, and laid on the table.—Upon a preconcerted signal, the lights were at once extinguished, and a Capt. Wadsworth, seizing the charter, hastened away under cover of night, and secreted it in the hollow of an oak. The candles, which had been extinguished, were soon relighted without disorder; but the charter had disappeared. Sir Edmund, however, assumed the government, and the records of the colony were closed.

The condition of the New England colonies was now distressing, and, as the administration of Andros was becoming still more severe and oppressive, the future seemed not to promise alleviation. But Providence was invisibly preparing the way for their relief. On the 5th of Nov. 1688, William, Prince of Orange, who married Mary, daughter of James II., landed at Torbay in England, and, compelling James II. to leave the kingdom, assumed the crown, being proclaimed Feb. 16th, 1689, to the general joy of the nation.

NOTES.

51. Manners of the Colonists. In the colonies of North America, at the close of this period, three varieties of character might be distinguished. In *New England*, the strict Puritanical notions of the people wrought a correspondent austerity upon the manners of society. Placing implicit faith in the Scriptures, they moulded their government, and shaped private character and morals, upon a severe and literal construction of them. They were devout, patriotic, industrious, and public-spirited; and though of a grave, reflecting exterior, they often showed that shrewd inquisitiveness,

and keen relish of a jest, which are still characteristic of the New Englanders.

The laws of the colonies throw some light on the views and manners of the people. As examples, in 1639, the drinking of healths was prohibited by law in Massachusetts. In 1651 the legislature of that colony prohibited all persons, whose "estate did not exceed two hundred pounds, from wearing any gold or silver lace, or any bone lace above two shillings per yard." The law authorized the selectmen to take notice of the costliness and fashion of the "apparel of the people, especially in the wearing of ribands and great boots." The New Haven colony, in 1639, resolved that they would be governed by the rules of Scripture; and that church members only should act in the civil affairs of the plantation.

In 1647, the colony of Connecticut expressed their disapprobation of the use of tobacco, by an act of assembly, in which it was ordered, "that no person, under the age of twenty years, nor any other that hath already accustomed himself to the use thereof, shall take any tobacco, until he shall have brought a certificate, from under the hand of some, who are approved for knowledge and skill in physic, that it is useful for him; and also, that he hath received a license from the court for the same. All others, who had addicted themselves to the use of tobacco, were, by the same court, prohibited taking it in any company, or at their labors, or on their travels, unless they were ten miles at least from any house, or more than once a day, though not in company, on pain of a fine of sixpence for each time; to be proved by one substantial witness. The constable in each town to make presentment of such transgressions to the particular court, and upon conviction, the fine to be paid without gainsaying."

In the *Colony of New York*, during this period, the manners of the colonists were strictly Dutch—with no other modifications than the privations of a new country, and the few English among them, necessarily effected. The same steadfast pursuit of wealth; the same plodding industry; the same dress, air, and physiognomy, which are given as characteristic of Holland, were equally characteristic of the inhabitants of New Amsterdam.

In *Virginia*, the manners of the colonists were those of the less rigid English, rendered still more free and voluptuous by the influence of a softer climate and a more prolific soil.

Stith says of the first settlers of this colony, that some emigrated "to escape a worse fate at home;" others, it is said, sought to repair fortunes by emigration which had been ruined by excess. Many persons, however, of high character, were among the emigrants; and amidst the licentiousness of the Virginia colony

were found, at the close of this period, the seeds of that frankness, hospitality, taste, and refinement, which distinguish the people of the south at this day.

Other national peculiarities might be noticed, as those of the Finns in Delaware, those of the Quakers in Pennsylvania, &c.; but, at this period, they were too limited to require a distinct notice in our work.

52. RELIGION. The colony of Virginia, from its earliest existence, was exclusively devoted to the Church of England.

For several years, its unsettled state prevented that attention to a religious establishment, which afterwards the subject received. At the expiration of thirteen years from the founding of the colony, there were but eleven parishes, and five ministers: the inhabitants of the colony did not, at this time, however, much exceed two thousand persons.

In 1621, the colony received a large accession to its numbers, and the governor and council were instructed "to take into special regard the service of Almighty God, and the observance of his divine laws; and that the people should be trained up in true religion and virtue." At the same time, the Virginia Company ordered a hundred acres of land, in each of the buroughs, to be laid off for a glebe, and two hundred pounds sterling to be raised, as a standing and certain revenue, out of the profits of each parish, to make a living: this stipend was thus settled—that the minister shall receive yearly five hundred pounds of tobacco, and sixteen barrels of corn; which were collectively estimated at two hundred pounds sterling. In 1642, the assembly passed a law prohibiting all, but those who had been ordained by English bishops, from preaching.

In 1650, during the time of Governor Berkley, the parishes of the colony were further regulated, the religion of the church of England was confirmed and established, and provision made for the support of the ministers. The maintenance of a minister was put at sixteen thousand pounds of tobacco, which, as valued at that time, at ten shillings per hundred, was about eighty pounds sterling. But, in addition to this, he had a dwelling-house and glebe; also, four hundred pounds of tobacco, or forty shillings, for a funeral sermon, and two hundred pounds of tobacco, or twenty shillings, for performing marriage by license, or five shillings when the banns were proclaimed. The tobacco destined for the minister was brought to him well packed in hogsheads, prepared for shipping. To raise this crop, twelve negroes were necessary.

The special object of the New England planters, in settling the country, was the enjoyment of their religious opinions, and the

free exercise of religious worship, without molestation. Early attention was, therefore, paid to the gathering of churches, and the regulation of religion. They were Calvinists in doctrine, and Congregational in discipline.

Each church maintained its right to govern itself. They held to the validity of Presbyterian ordination, and the expediency of synods on great occasions. From the commencement, they used ecclesiastical councils, convoked by particular churches, for advice, but not for the judicial determination of controversies.

In each of the churches, there was a pastor, teacher, ruling elder, and deacons. The pastor's office consisted principally in exhortation: upon the teacher devolved the business of explaining and defending the doctrines of Christianity. The business of the ruling elder was to assist the pastor in the government of the church.

Early provision was made for the support of the ministry. On the arrival of the colonists of Massachusetts Bay, at Charlestown, before landing, a court of assistants was held; and the first question proposed was, How shall the ministers be maintained? The court ordered that houses be built, and salaries be raised for them, at the public charge. Their two ministers, Mr. Phillips and Mr. Wilson, were granted a salary—the former thirty pounds per annum, and the latter twenty pounds, until the arrival of his wife.

After the settlement of the several colonies, all persons were obliged by law to contribute to the support of the church. Special care was taken that all persons should attend public worship. In Connecticut, the law obliged them to be present on the Lord's day—on all days of public fasting and thanksgiving, appointed by civil authority—on penalty of five shillings for every instance of neglect.

By the year 1642, twenty-two years from the landing of the pilgrims at Plymouth, there had been settled in New England, seventy-seven ministers, who were driven from the parent country; fifty towns and villages had been planted, and thirty or forty churches gathered.

In 1637, the first synod convened in America, sat at Newtown, Massachusetts, and was composed of all the teaching elders in the country, and messengers of the several churches. Magistrates also were present, and spoke as they thought fit. The object of calling this synod was to inquire into the opinions of one Ann Hutchinson, a very extraordinary woman, who held public lectures in Boston, and taught doctrines considered heretical. The whole colony was agitated and divided into parties. The synod, after a session of three weeks, condemned eighty-two erroneous opinions, which had become disseminated in New England.

The *Dutch Reformed Church* was introduced into New York with the first settlers, and was generally embraced by the Dutch population of that colony.

The *Roman Catholics* first came to America in 1632; they settled in Maryland, and now constitute a respectable and numerous portion of the inhabitants of that state.

The first *Baptist* church in America was formed at Providence, in 1639, under the celebrated Roger Williams. Their sentiments spreading into Massachusetts, in 1651, the general court passed a law against them, inflicting banishment for persisting in the promulgation of their doctrines.

In 1656, the *Quakers* making their appearance in Massachusetts, the legislature of that colony passed severe laws against them.

No master of a vessel was allowed to bring any one of this sect into its jurisdiction, on penalty of one hundred pounds. Other still severer penalties were inflicted upon them in 1657, such as cutting their ears, and boring their tongues with a hot iron, &c. They were at length banished on pain of death, and, for refusing to go, were executed in 1659.

Without intending to justify these severities toward the Baptists, Quakers, and other sectaries, it is still proper to state, as some apology for them, that the conduct of the leaders of these sects was often calculated, and no doubt designed, to provoke persecution. They sought improper occasions to inculcate their peculiar tenets, departed unnecessarily from the decencies of social intercourse, and rudely inveighed against established and cherished opinions. In this way, the peace of the colonies was disturbed, and that unanimity of religious sentiment, which had hitherto existed, was broken. Our forefathers sought to avert these evils by the arm of civil power; not yet having learnt that persecution is a ready way to propagate the sentiments of the persecuted.

In the year 1646, a synod met at Cambridge, which, by adjournment, protracted its session to 1648, when it dissolved. This synod composed and adopted the "Cambridge Platform," and recommended it, together with the Westminster Confession of Faith, to the general court and to the churches. In this synod were present the ministers and churches of Connecticut and New Haven, who united in the form of discipline which it recommended. This, in connection with the ecclesiastical laws, was the religious constitution of Connecticut, until the compilation of the Saybrook Platform, a period of about sixty years.

53. TRADE AND COMMERCE. The colonies, during this period, had little other trade than with England,

though the West India trade had begun, and there was some commerce with Canada, and a few ports on the European continent. The colonies imported from England all their merchandise; and exported thither tobacco, peltry, and at length some beef, pork, grain, and fish. The importations from England, however, much exceeded the exports thither.

During the first thirty years of the colony of Virginia, their exports were confined to tobacco. But the price of it fell, at length, from three shillings and sixpence per pound, to twenty shillings per hundred, in consequence of which, a trade was opened with the frontier Indians and the Five Nations. The skins of the deer, elk, and buffalo, and the furs of the otter, hare, fox, muskrat, and beaver, were procured for rum, hatchets, blankets, &c. These skins and furs were exported to England. English grain and Indian corn were also exported to a considerable extent. Although the Virginians owned a few vessels, the greater part of the trade was carried on by English vessels, during this period. They brought to the colony English manufactures, and took tobacco, furs, skins, grain, tar, pitch, &c. in return. The Virginians also carried on some trade with Canada.

The principal article of export from New England, during this period, was peltry, which was procured of the Indians, for goods of small value. In 1639, a fishing trade was begun at Cape Anne, and in 1641, three hundred thousand codfish were sent to market.

The first vessel directly from the West Indies was a Dutch ship of one hundred and sixty tons, which arrived at Marblehead, 1635. The first American vessel that made a voyage to the West Indies was a pinnace of thirty tons, in 1636. The ship *Desire*, of Salem, made a voyage, in 1638, to New Providence and Tortuga, and returned laden with cotton, tobacco, salt, and negroes. This was the first introduction of African slaves into New England. The first importation of indigo and sugar from the West Indies, mentioned in our accounts, was made in 1639. In 1642, a Dutch ship exchanged a cargo of salt for plank and pipe-staves, the first exports of lumber from New England. The next year, eleven ships sailed for the West Indies with lumber.

In 1678, the annual exports of the New York colony, besides beef, pork, tobacco, and peltry, were about sixty thousand bushels of wheat. About ten or fifteen vessels, on an average, of one hundred tons, English and colonial, traded to this colony in a year.

54. AGRICULTURE. Early attention was paid to agriculture. The first business of the settlers was to clear

the forests, and supply themselves with food from the soil. But the fertility of the earth taught them soon to look to agriculture as a source of wealth, as well as of subsistence. It therefore became the leading object of industry in the colonies.

The method adopted by the first settlers to clear the land, was slow and laborious, compared with the present modes. They used generally to cut down the trees, and *dig up* the stumps, before tillage.

Tobacco was early cultivated in Virginia, and soon began to be exported. The year after the colony landed, the people gathered corn of their own planting, the seed of which they received of the Indians. Vineyards were attempted, and experienced vine-dressers were sent over for the purpose of attending them. Flax, hemp, barley, &c., were cultivated to a considerable extent. Rye was first raised in Massachusetts in 1633. Ploughs were early introduced into the country.

Neat cattle were first introduced into New England by Mr. Winslow, in 1624. In 1629, one hundred and forty head of cattle, with horses, sheep, and goats, were imported into Massachusetts Bay. In a few years, they became so numerous as to supply all the wants of the inhabitants. In 1623, the cattle in Virginia had increased to above one thousand head.

New York raised considerable beef and pork for exportation, and in 1678, there were exported from the province sixty thousand bushels of wheat.

55. Arts and Manufactures. The colonists, during this period, being chiefly occupied in gaining a subsistence, and in protecting themselves against their enemies, had occasion for few articles beyond the necessaries and comforts of life. Arts and manufactures, therefore, received but little encouragement, beyond the construction of such articles, and even those were principally imported.

In 1620, one hundred and fifty persons arrived in Virginia, from England, for the purpose of manufacturing silk, iron, potash, tar, pitch, glass, salt, &c.; but they did not succeed. In 1673, Chalmers says of New England, "There be five iron works which cast no guns—no house in New England has above twenty rooms—not twenty in Boston have ten rooms each—a dancing school was set up here, but put down—a fencing school is allowed. There be no musicians by trade. All cordage, sail-cloth and mats, come from England—no cloth made there worth four shillings per yard—no alum, no copperas, no salt, made by their sun"

The first buildings of the settlers were made of logs and thatched, or were built of stone. Brick and framed houses were soon built in the larger towns, and afterwards in the villages. The frames and brick were, however, in some instances, imported. The first mill in New England was a wind-mill, near Watertown; but it was taken down in 1632, and placed in the vicinity of Boston. Water-mills began to be erected the next year. The first attempt to build water-craft, in New England, was at Plymouth, in 1626. A house-carpenter sawed their largest boat into two parts, and lengthened it five or six feet, built a deck, and rigged it into a convenient vessel, which did service for seven years. The first vessel built in Massachusetts was a bark, in 1631, called *The Blessing of the Bay*. In 1633, a ship of sixty tons was built at Medford. In 1636, one of one hundred and twenty tons was built at Marblehead. In 1641, a ship of three hundred tons was launched at Salem, and one of one hundred and sixty tons at Boston. From this time, ship-building rapidly extended in the northern colonies.

The first *printing* in New England was executed in 1639, by one Day. The proprietor of the press was a clergyman by the name of Glover, who died on his passage to America. The first article printed was the Freeman's Oath, the second an almanac, and the third an edition of the Psalms. No other printing-press was established in America during this period. John Elliot, the celebrated missionary, having translated the Bible into the Indian language, had it printed at Cambridge, in 1664.

The mode of travelling considerable distances was on foot, or on horseback, there being no carriages for that purpose, and the roads from one village to another being only narrow foot-paths, through forests.

56. POPULATION. We may estimate the population of the English American colonies, at the close of this period, at about 200,000.

It is impossible to ascertain very exactly the population of the American colonies at the close of this period. The estimates made by writers are vague and often contradictory. The estimate of Dr. Humphries in 1701, which seems as well entitled to credit as any other, is as follows:—

	Souls.		*Souls.*
Massachusetts	70,000	New York	30,000
Connecticut	30,000	Jerseys	15,000
Rhode Island	10,000	Pennsylvania	20,000
New Hampshire	10,000	Maryland	25,000
		Virginia	40,000
New England	120,000	North Carolina	5,000
Mid. and S. Colonies	142,000	South Carolina	7,000
Total	262,000		142,000

Making a deduction from this account, so as to bring the estimate to the close of our period, we state the whole white population of the English American colonies, in 1689, at about two hundred thousand.

57. EDUCATION. In New England, schools were founded, at the outset of the colonies, for the education of *all classes:* in the southern colonies, provisions for the education of the *higher classes only* were attempted during this period.

Scarcely had the American colonists opened the forests, and constructed habitations, before they directed their attention to the object of education.

Previously to 1619, the king of England authorized the collection of moneys throughout the kingdom, to erect a college in Virginia, for the education of Indian children: one thousand five hundred pounds were collected for this purpose, and *Henrico* was selected as a suitable place for the seminary. The same year, the Virginia company granted ten thousand acres of land for the projected university. This donation, while it embraced the original object, was intended also for the foundation of a seminary of learning for English scholars.

In addition to a college, the colonists, in 1621, instituted a school at Charles' City for the benefit of all the colony, which they called the *East India School.* For the maintenance of the master and usher, one thousand acres of land were appropriated, with five servants and an overseer. From this school, pupils were to be transferred to the college at Henrico, when the latter should be sufficiently endowed. These establishments in Virginia, however, failed of success, and, in 1692, their funds were given to William and Mary's college, which we shall notice hereafter.

Still more attentive to education were the northern colonies. In 1630, a general court of Massachusetts Bay appropriated the sum of four hundred pounds towards the commencement of a college. In 1637, the college was located at Newtown, which, not long after, was called *Cambridge,* in memory of Cambridge, in England, where many of the colonists had received their education. Mr. John Harvard, a worthy minister, dying at Charlestown about this time, bequeathed nearly eight hundred pounds to the college, in consideration of which legacy it was called after him. In 1642 was held the first commencement, at which nine were graduated.

To this institution the plantations of Connecticut and New Haven, so long as they remained unable to support a similar one at home, contributed funds from the public purse; and sent to it such of their youth as they wished to be educated. Private

subscriptions were also made from the United Colonies, to aid the institution.

Great attention was also paid by all the colonies to the subject of common schools. As a specimen of the arrangements common to the New England colonies, we may notice those of Connecticut. By her first code, in 1639, only six years from the time the first house was erected within the colony, it was ordered that every town, consisting of fifty families, should maintain a good school, in which reading and writing should be well taught; and that in every county town a good grammar school should be instituted. Large tracts of land were appropriated by the legislature as a permanent support of these schools, and the selectmen of every town were required to see that all heads of families instructed their children and servants to read the English tongue well.

REFLECTIONS.

58. At the commencement of this period, our history presented us with a continent, over whose surface an interminable wilderness had for ages cast its deep and solemn shade. If we approach the shore, and look through the gloom that gathers over it, the scenes which strike the eye are Indians at their war dance, or, perhaps, flames curling round some expiring captive, or wild beasts mangling their prey.

Passing from this point of time to the close of our period, a space of eighty-two years, the prospect is greatly changed. We *now* see smiling fields and cheerful villages, in the place of dismal forests; instead of beasts of prey, we see grazing herds; instead of the kindling fagot, we witness the worship of Jesus Christ; and instead of the appalling war-whoop, we listen to the grateful songs of David. In the beautiful words of Scripture, the wilderness has *begun* to blossom as the rose, and the desert is becoming vocal with the praises of God.

But how is it that a change so wonderful has been brought to pass? We have indeed seen the hardy spirit of enterprise leaving the luxuries of Europe, and plunging into the forests of America. But we have also seen our forefathers struggling with difficulties, and often trembling on the very brink of ruin. We have seen them amidst Indian war, desolating famine and pestilence; and we have wondered, after the storm has passed, to see them rise with renovated strength, and seem to gather power and advantage from circumstances calculated to overwhelm them.

Admitting, then, the extraordinary energy, wisdom, enterprise, and hardihood, of the first settlers of America, still we are driven to the admission of a benign Providence working in their favor

and mysteriously establishing their strength and security, by exercising them for years with danger, trial, and misfortune.

Nor are these the only considerations which excite our admiration in regard to the first settlers of North America. Although, in the eloquent words of Mr. Walsh, "It was their peculiar lot, at one and the same time, to clear and cultivate a wilderness; to erect habitations and procure sustenance; to struggle with a new and rigorous climate; to bear up against all the bitter recollections inseparable from distant and lonely exile; to defend their liberties from the jealous tyranny and bigotry of the mother country; to be perpetually assailed by a savage foe, the most subtle and the most formidable of any people on the face of the earth:" still, they looked forward to the welfare of future generations; laid broad and deep foundations for religious institutions; made the most careful provisions for learning; and enacted wholesome laws, the benefit of which is distinctly felt to this day.

It may be further remarked, that history shows the influence of the manners of a people upon their government, and the reciprocal influence of government upon the manners of a people. The history of this period furnishes striking examples of this. In Virginia, the free and licentious manners of society produce a government unsteady and capricious. This government reacts upon their manners, and aids rather than checks their licentiousness. On the contrary, in New England, the severe Puritanical manners of the people produce a rigid, energetic government, and the government returns its Puritanical influence back upon the manners of the people.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD III.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE WARS OF KING WILLIAM, QUEEN ANNE, AND GEORGE II.

Extending from the Accession of William and Mary to the Throne of England, 1689, *to the Declaration of the War by England against France,* 1756, *called "the French and Indian War."*

Sec. 1. The news of William's accession to the throne of England excited great joy throughout the colonies. Under the sudden impulse of their feelings, the inhabitants of Boston imprisoned Sir Edmund Andros, with about fifty of his associates, until they were ordered to England, to answer for maleadministration. Connecticut and Rhode Island resumed their charters, and were permitted by his majesty to reëstablish their former governments. Massachusetts soon after obtained a new charter, which, in some respects, was less favorable to the colony, but, in others, more so, than its former one.

Andros had formerly been governor of New York, under the Duke of York, in which province his administration had been distinguished for measures both arbitrary and severe. Subsequent governors, under the duke, and after he came to the throne, had generally pursued a similar course. The discontents of the people had been gradually increasing, and they were ready for revolution, when the above intelligence of the proceedings at Boston arrived. A revolution soon commenced,

and, although attended by unhappy events, issued in the restoration of the rights of the people, and the formation of a constitution, which laid the foundation of their provincial code.

From the reduction of New York, in 1664, to 1683, the people had no share in the government. In 1681, the council court of assizes, and corporation, had solicited the Duke of York to permit the people to choose their own rulers. Accordingly, the next year, Thomas Dongan, a papist, was appointed governor, with instructions to call an assembly, to consist of a council of ten, and of eighteen representatives, elected by the freeholders.

On the accession of the Duke of York to the throne, under the title of James II., he refused to confirm to the people the privileges granted them while he was duke. No assembly was permitted to be convened; printing-presses were prohibited, and the more important provincial offices were conferred on papists.

Such was the state of things when intelligence of the seizure of Andros arrived. This gave a spring to the general dissatisfaction, which burst forth into open resistance to the existing administration.

One Jacob Leisler, with several others, immediately took possession of the fort. Gov. Dongan had just embarked for England, leaving the administration of the government, during his absence, to Charles Nicholson, at that time his deputy. Nicholson and his officers made what opposition to Leisler they were able; but, he having been joined by six militia captains, and four hundred and seventy men, Nicholson absconded. Upon this, Leisler assumed the supreme command.

This assumption of Leisler was far from being pleasant to the council and magistrates, at the head of whom were Col. Bayard and the mayor. Finding it impossible, however, to succeed against Leisler in New York, they retired to Albany, and there employed their influence to foment opposition. Both Leisler, in New York, and the people at Albany, held their respective garrisons in the name of William and Mary; but neither would submit to the authority of the other.

While affairs were in this posture, a letter from the Lords Carmathen and Halifax arrived, directed "To Francis Nicholson, Esq., or, in his absence, to such as, for the time being, take care for preserving the peace and administering the laws," &c. Accompanying this letter was another of a subsequent date, vesting Nicholson with the chief command.

As Nicholson had absconded, Leisler construed the letter as directed to himself, and from that time assumed the title and authority of lieutenant-governor. The southern part of New York generally submitted to him; but Albany refusing subjec-

tion, Milborn, his son-in-law, was sent to reduce them. In his first attempt he failed; but during the ensuing spring, 1690, he took possession of the fort, and the inhabitants submitted.

On the 19th of March, 1691, Col. Sloughter arrived at New York, in the capacity of the king's governor. Nicholson and Bayard, who had been imprisoned by Leisler, were released. The latter was obliged to abandon the fort, and, with Milborn, his son-in-law, was apprehended, tried for high treason, and condemned. Their immediate execution was urged by the people; but the governor, fearful of consequences, chose to defer it. To effect their purpose, an invitation was given him by the citizens to a sumptuous feast, and, while his reason was drowned in intoxication, a warrant for their execution was presented to him and signed. Before he recovered his senses, the prisoners were no more.

Measures so violent greatly agitated the existing parties; but, in the end, the revolution which had taken place, restored the rights of Englishmen to the colony. Gov. Sloughter convoked an assembly, which formed a constitution. This, among other provisions, secured trials by jury, freedom from taxation, except by the consent of the assembly, and toleration to all denominations of Christians, excepting Roman Catholics.

It may be added, in this place, that the civil history of New York, from this period to the French war, presents few events of special interest to the young. The governors, who succeeded Sloughter, during the above interval, were Fletcher, 1692; the Earl of Bellamont, 1698; Lord Cornbury, 1702; Hunter, 1710; Burnet, 1720; Montgomery, 1731; Crosby, 1732; Clark, 1736; George Clinton, 1743. In general, these governors were strongly attached to the interests of the crown, and often apparently more solicitous to subserve their own selfish purposes than to advance the permanent welfare of the colony. Hence collisions frequently arose between them and the colonial assemblies, which disturbed the general peace, and retarded the prosperity of the colony.

2. 1690. While the northern colonies were troubled, as noticed in the preceding section, those of the Carolinas were in a similar state of dissension and distress. To allay these, in the northern colony, Seth Sothel was appointed chief magistrate; but, proving corrupt in his administration, he was banished by the assembly, in 1690; immediately after which, he repaired to Charleston, and usurped the government of the southern colony. Added to this, a quarrel arose, between the proprietors and the English inhabitants, in relation to a body of

French Protestants, which had planted themselves in the county of Craven—the proprietors demanding for them the privilege of electing representatives, which was strenuously refused by the English Episcopalians. Such being the general turbulence and disorder of the times, Sir John Archdale, one of the proprietors, was sent over, in 1695, as governor of both the Carolinas, with full powers to redress grievances, and to adjust, if possible, existing difficulties. These objects, by his singular wisdom and address, he in a measure accomplished.

In respect to the deep-rooted prejudices existing against the above French Protestants, Archdale found it to be the part of wisdom to leave them to be softened and removed by time. This a few years effected. The amiable deportment of the refugees so won upon the English, that they were cheerfully admitted to all the rights of citizens and freemen.

At a subsequent date, the repose of the southern colony was greatly disturbed by the passage of a law by the general assembly, establishing the Episcopal religion, and excluding dissenters from a seat in the assembly. This gave birth to bitter animosities, and as bitter contentions. Complaints being made to Queen Anne, then on the throne, the law was declared to be void. This agitating question being thus put at rest, the colony again enjoyed the blessings of domestic quiet. (See *Sec.* 17, 20.)

3. About this period, 1692, commenced in Danvers, then a part of Salem, Massachusetts, a singular infatuation on the supposed prevalence of witchcraft. In a short time, this infatuation pervaded several parts of New England, producing, in its progress, the greatest distress in private families, and disorder and tumult throughout the country.

The first suspicion of witchcraft in New England, and in the United States, began at Springfield, Massachusetts, as early as 1645. Several persons, about that time, were accused, tried and executed in Massachusetts; one at Charlestown, one at Dorchester, one at Cambridge, and one at Boston. For almost thirty years afterwards, the subject rested. But, in 1687 or 1688, it was revived in Boston; four of the children of John Goodwin uniting in accusing a poor Irish woman with bewitching them. Unhappily, the accusation was regarded with attention, and the woman was tried and executed.

Near the close of February, 1692, the subject was again re-

vived, in consequence of several children in Danvers, Salem, beginning to act in a peculiar and unaccountable manner. Their strange conduct continuing for several days, their friends betook themselves to fasting and prayer. During religious exercises, it was found that the children were generally decent and still; but after service was ended, they renewed their former inexplicable conduct. This was deemed sufficient evidence, that they were laboring under the influence of witchcraft.

At the expiration of some days, the children began to accuse several persons in the neighborhood of bewitching them. Unfortunately, they were credited, and the suspected authors of the spell were seized and imprisoned.

From this date, the awful mania rapidly spread into the neighboring country, and soon appeared in various parts of Essex, Middlesex, and Suffolk. Persons at Andover, Ipswich, Gloucester, Boston, and several other places, were accused by their neighbors and others.

For some time, the victims were selected only from the lower classes. But, at length, the accusations fell upon persons of the most respectable rank. In August, Mr. George Boroughs, some time minister in Salem, was accused, brought to trial, and condemned. Accusations were also brought against Mr. English, a respectable merchant in Salem, and his wife; against Messrs Dudley and John Bradstreet, sons of the then late Governor Bradstreet; against the wife of Mr. Hale, and the lady of Sir William Phipps.

The evil had now become awfully alarming. One man, named Giles Corey, had been pressed to death for refusing to put himself on a trial by jury; and nineteen persons had been executed, more than one third of whom were members of the church. One hundred and fifty were in prison, and two hundred were accused.

At length, the inquiry was anxiously suggested, Where will this accumulating mischief and misery end? A conviction began to spread, that the proceedings had been rash and indefensible. A special court was held on the subject, and fifty, who were brought to trial, were acquitted, excepting three, who were afterwards reprieved by the governor. These events were followed by a general release of those who had been imprisoned. "Thus the cloud," says the late President Dwight, "which had so long hung over the colony, slowly and sullenly retired; and, like the darkness of Egypt, was, to the great joy of the distressed inhabitants, succeeded by serenity and sunshine."

We, who live to look back upon this scene, are wont to contemplate, with wonder, the seeming madness and infatuation, not of the weak, illiterate, and unprincipled, but of men of sense, education, and fervent piety. Let us consider, however, that, at this period, the actual existence of witchcraft was taken

for granted, and that doubts respecting it were deemed little less than heresy. The learned Baxter, who lived at this time in England, where the same notions on this subject prevailed, pronounced the disbeliever in witchcraft, an "obdurate Sadducee;" and Sir Matthew Hale, one of the brightest ornaments of the English bench, repeatedly tried and condemned those as criminals who were accused of witchcraft.

In conclusion, it may be remarked, that no people on earth are *now* more enlightened on this subject than are the people of America. Nothing of a similar kind has since existed, and probably never will exist. Stories of wonder, founded upon ancient tradition, or upon a midnight adventure, sometimes awe the village circle on a winter's night; but the succeeding day chases away every ghost, and lulls every fear. It becomes the present generation to advert with gratitude to their freedom from those delusions which distressed and agitated their ancestors, rather than to bestow invectives upon them, since they could plead, in palliation of their error, the spirit of the age in which they lived.

4. Scarcely were the colonies relieved from the oppression of King James, before they were visited with troubles of a nature still more distressing. The revolution, which followed the accession of William and Mary, had indeed restored their liberties, but it involved them in a war both with the French and Indians, which continued from 1690 to the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, commonly called "*King William's War.*"

King James, on leaving England, fled to France. Louis XIV., king of France, attempting to support him, kindled the flame of war between his own country and England. The subjects of Louis, in Canada, of course, directed their arms against the colonies of New England and New York, and instigated the Indians to join them in their hostilities.

The governor of Canada, at this time, was Count Frontenac, a brave and enterprising officer. Inflamed with the resentment which had kindled in the bosom of his master, he fitted out three expeditions, in the dead of winter, against the American colonies—one against New York, a second against New Hampshire, and a third against the Province of Maine. Each of these parties, in the execution of their orders, marked their progress with plunder, fire, and death.

The party destined against New York, consisting of about three hundred men, fell upon Schenectady, a village on the Mohawk, in February. The season was cold, and the snow so deep, that it was deemed impossible for an enemy to approach. The attack was made in the dead of the night, while the inhabitants were in a profound sleep. Not a sentinel was awake to announce the approaching danger. Care had been taken, by a division of the enemy, to attack almost every house in the same moment. When the preparations were ready, on a preconcerted signal, the appalling war-whoop was begun; houses were broken open and set on fire; men and women were dragged from their beds, and, with their sleeping infants, were inhumanly murdered. Sixty persons perished in the massacre, thirty were made prisoners, while the rest of the inhabitants, mostly naked, fled through a deep snow, either suffering extremely, or perishing in the cold.

The second party, directing their course to New Hampshire, burned Salmon Falls, killing thirty of the bravest men, and carrying fifty-four of the inhabitants into a miserable captivity.

The third party, proceeding from Quebec, destroyed the settlement of Casco, in Maine, and killed and captured one hundred people.

5. Roused by these proceedings of the French, the colony of Massachusetts resolved to attack the enemy in turn. Accordingly, an expedition, consisting of seven vessels and eight hundred men, under command of Sir William Phipps, sailed for the reduction of Port Royal, in Nova Scotia, which was easily and speedily effected.

This was soon followed by a second expedition, under the same commander, by the colonies of New York, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, united, for the reduction of Montreal and Quebec. A combination of unfortunate circumstances, however, defeated the design, and the expedition, after encountering numerous disasters, returned.

The plan was, for the troops of New York and Connecticut, consisting of about two thousand, to penetrate into Canada, by Lake Champlain, and to attack Montreal, at the same time that the naval armament, consisting of between thirty and forty vessels, with a similar number of men, should invest Quebec. The troops destined for Montreal, not being supplied either with boats or provisions, sufficient for crossing the lake, were obliged to return. The naval expedition did not reach Quebec until October. After spending several days in consultation, the landing of the troops was effected, and they began their march for the town.

At the same time, the ships were drawn up; but the attack, both by land and water, was alike unsuccessful. The troops were soon after re-embarked; and the weather, proving tempestuous, scattered the fleet, and terminated the expedition.

The success of the expedition had been so confidently anticipated, that provision had not been made for the payment of the troops: there was danger, therefore, of a mutiny. In this extremity, Massachusetts issued bills of credit, as a substitute for money; the first emission of the kind in the American colonies.

6. The failure of the expedition to Quebec was humbling to New England, and productive of other unhappy consequences. The Indian tribes, Mohawks, Oneidas, Senecas, Onondagas, and Delawares, called the *Five Nations*, settled along the banks of the Susquehannah, and in the adjacent country, who were in alliance with Great Britain, and had long been a safeguard to the colonies against the French, became dissatisfied. They blamed the English for their inactivity, and manifested a disposition to make peace with the French.

To restore the confidence of the Indian allies, Major Peter Schuyler, the next year, 1691, at the head of three hundred English soldiers, and as many Mohawk Indians, made an attack on the French settlements north of Lake Champlain. De Callieres, governor of Montreal, was waiting to oppose him. After several irregular, but successful conflicts, Schuyler made good his retreat, having killed thirteen officers and three hundred men.

New York found great security against the encroachments of the French, in the Five Nations, who now carried on a vigorous war, along the river St. Lawrence, from Montreal to Quebec.

But the eastern portion of the country, particularly New Hampshire, suffered exceedingly; the storm falling with the greatest severity upon them. Both Connecticut and Massachusetts raised troops for their defence; but such was the danger and distress of the colony of New Hampshire, that the inhabitants were upon the point of abandoning the province.

The winter of 1696 was unusually severe. Never had the country sustained such losses in commerce; nor had provisions, in any period of the war, been more scarce, or borne a higher price.

7. In the midst of these distresses, the country was threatened with a blow, which it seemed impossible that it should sustain. The Marquis Nesmond, an officer of high reputation, was despatched from France, with

ten ships of the line, a galliot, and two frigates. Count Frontenac, from Canada, was expected to join him at Penobscot, with one thousand five hundred men. With this force, they were to make a descent on Boston; to range the coast of Newfoundland, and burn the shipping which should fall in their way. To finish their work of destruction, they were to take New York, whence the troops, under Frontenac, were to return to Canada, through the country, wasting and destroying the regions through which they should pass. But De Nesmond sailed too late for the accomplishment of his purpose. On his arrival on the coast, not being able to join Frontenac in season, the expedition failed, and the colonies were saved. At length, December 10, 1697, a treaty was concluded between France and England, at Ryswick, in Germany, by which it was agreed, in general terms, that a mutual restitution should be made of all the countries, forts, and colonies, taken by each party during the war.

King William's war, which was thus brought to a close, had been marked by atrocities, on the part of the French and Indians, until then unknown in the history of the colonies. Infants, when they became troublesome, were despatched by being dashed against a stone or tree; or, to add to the anguish of a mother, her babe was sometimes lacerated with a scourge, or nearly strangled under water, and then presented to her to quiet. If unable soon to succeed in this, it was too effectually quieted by the hatchet, or left behind to become the prey of prowling beasts. Some of the captives were roasted alive; others received deep wounds in the fleshy parts of their bodies, into which sticks on fire were thrust, until, tormented out of life, they expired.

The details of individual sufferings, which occurred during this war, were they faithfully recorded, would excite the sympathies of the most unfeeling bosom. One instance only can we relate.

In an attack, by a body of Indians, on Haverhill, New Hampshire, in the winter of 1697, the concluding year of the war, a party of the assailants, burning with savage animosity, approached the house of a Mr. Dustan. Upon the first alarm, he flew from a neighboring field to his family, with the hope of hurrying them to a place of safety. Seven of his children he directed to flee, while he himself went to assist his wife, who was confined to the bed with an infant a week old. But before she could leave her bed, the savages arrived.

In despair of rendering her assistance, Mr. Dustan flew to the door, mounted his horse, and determined, in his own mind, to snatch up and save the child which he loved the best. He followed in pursuit of his little flock; but, upon coming up to them, he found it impossible to make a selection. The eye of the parent could see no one of the number that he could abandon to the knife of the savage. He determined, therefore, to meet his fate with them; to defend and save them from their pursuers, or die by their side.

A body of Indians soon came up with him, and, from short distances, fired upon him and his little company. For more than a mile, he continued to retreat, placing himself between his children and the fire of the savages, and returning their shots with great spirit and success. At length, he saw them all safely lodged from their bloody pursuers, in a distant house.

It is not easy to find a nobler instance of fortitude and courage, inspired by affection, than is exhibited in this instance. Let us ever cultivate the influence of those ties of kindred, which are capable of giving so generous and elevated a direction to our actions.

As Mr. Dustan quitted his house, a party of Indians entered it. Mrs. Dustan was in bed; but they ordered her to rise, and, before she could completely dress herself, obliged her and her nurse, a Mrs. Teff, who had vainly endeavored to escape with the infant, to quit the house, which they plundered and set on fire.

In these distressing circumstances, Mrs. Dustan began her march, with other captives, into the wilderness. The air was keen, and their path led alternately through snow and deep mud; and her savage conductors delighted rather in the infliction of torment than the alleviation of distress.

The company had proceeded but a short distance, when an Indian, thinking the infant an incumbrance, took it from the nurse's arms, and violently terminated its life. Such of the other captives as began to be weary, and incapable of proceeding, the Indians killed with their tomahawks. Feeble as Mrs. Dustan was, both she and her nurse sustained, with wonderful energy, the fatigue and misery attending a journey of one hundred and fifty miles.

On their arrival at the place of their destination, they found the wigwam of the savage, who claimed them as his personal property, to be inhabited by twelve Indians. In the ensuing April, this family set out, with their captives, for an Indian settlement still more remote. The captives were informed that, on their arrival at the settlement, they must submit to be stripped, scourged, and run the gantlet, between two files of Indians. This information carried distress to the minds of the captive women, and led them promptly to devise some means of escape.

Early in the morning of the 31st, Mrs. Dustan, awaking her

nurse and another fellow-prisoner, they despatched ten of the twelve Indians while asleep. The other two escaped. The women then pursued their difficult and toilsome journey through the wilderness, and at length arrived in safety at Haverhill. Subsequently, they visited Boston, and received, at the hand of the general court, a handsome consideration for their extraordinary sufferings and heroic conduct.

8. Scarcely had the colonies recovered from the wounds and impoverishment of King William's war, which ended in 1697, before they were again involved in the horrors of another war with the French, Indians, and Spaniards, commonly called "*Queen Anne's War*," which continued from 1702 to the peace of Utrecht, March 31st, 1713.

By the treaty of Ryswick, (*Sec.* 7.) it was in general terms agreed, that France and England should mutually restore to each other all conquests made during the war. But the rights and pretensions of either monarch to certain places in Hudson's Bay, &c. were left to be ascertained and determined, at some future day, by commissioners.

The evil consequences of leaving boundaries thus unsettled, were soon perceived. Disputes arose, which, mingling with other differences of still greater importance, led England to declare war against France and Spain, May 4th, 1702.

9. The whole weight of the war in America unexpectedly fell on New England. The geographical position of New York particularly exposed that colony to a combined attack from the lakes and sea; but just before the commencement of hostilities, a treaty of neutrality was concluded between the Five Nations and the French governor in Canada. The local situation of the Five Nations, bordering on the frontiers of New York, prevented the French from molesting that colony. Massachusetts and New Hampshire were thus left to bear the chief calamities of the war.

The declaration of war was immediately followed by incursions of French and Indians from Canada into these colonies, who seized every opportunity of annoying the inhabitants, by depredation and outrage.

On Tuesday, February 29th, 1704, at day-break, a party of French and Indians, three hundred in number, under command

of the infamous Hertel De Rouville, fell upon Deerfield, Mass. Unhappily, not only the inhabitants, but even the watch, were asleep. They soon made themselves masters of the house in which the garrison was kept. Proceeding thence to the house of Mr. Williams, the clergyman, they forced the doors, and entered the room where he was sleeping.

Awaked by the noise, Mr. Williams seized his pistol and snapped it at the Indian who first approached; but it missed fire. Mr. Williams was now seized, disarmed, bound, and kept standing without his clothes, in the intense cold, nearly an hour.

His house was next plundered, and two of his children, together with a black female servant, were butchered before his eyes. The savages, at length, suffered his wife and five children to put on their clothes, after which he was himself allowed to dress, and prepare for a long and melancholy journey.

The whole town around them was now on fire. Every house, but the one next to Mr. Williams's, was consumed. Having completed their work of destruction, in burning the town, and killing forty-seven persons, the enemy hastily retreated, taking with them one hundred of the inhabitants, among whom were Mr. Williams and his family.

The first night after their departure from Deerfield, the savages murdered Mr. Williams's servant; and, on the day succeeding, finding Mrs. Williams unable to keep pace with the rest, plunged a hatchet into her head. She had recently borne an infant, and was not yet recovered. But her husband was not permitted to assist her. He himself was lame, bound, insulted, threatened, and nearly famished; but what were personal sufferings like these, and even greater than these, to the sight of a wife, under circumstances so tender, inhumanly butchered before his eyes! Before the journey was ended, seventeen others shared the melancholy fate of Mrs. Williams.

On their arrival in Canada, it may be added, Mr. Williams was treated with civility by the French. At the end of two years, he was redeemed, with fifty-seven others, and returned to Deerfield, where, after twelve years' labor in the gospel, he entered into his rest.

10. In the spring of 1707, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire, despatched an armament against Port Royal, in Nova Scotia. The expedition, consisting of one thousand men, sailed from Nantucket, in twenty-three transports, under convoy of the Deptfort man-of-war, and the Province galley. After a short voyage, they arrived at Port Royal; but March, the commander of the expedition, though a brave man, be-

ing unfit to lead in an enterprise so difficult, little was done beyond burning a few houses and killing a few cattle.

While this unfortunate expedition was in progress, the frontiers were kept in constant alarm. Oyster River, Exeter, Kingston, and Dover, in New Hampshire, Berwick, York, Wells, and Casco, in Maine, were attacked, and considerably damaged by the enemy.

11. The colonies were now resolved on another attempt upon Canada. In 1708, Massachusetts petitioned Queen Anne for assistance, and she promised to send five regiments of regular troops. These, with twelve hundred men raised in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, were to sail from Boston to Quebec.

A second division of one thousand eight hundred men, from colonies south of Rhode Island, were to march against Montreal, by way of Champlain; but this project also failed, the land troops returning, after penetrating to Wood Creek, in consequence of learning that the naval armament, promised from England, had been directed to Portugal.

12. The patience of the colonies was not yet exhausted. Another application was made to the queen, and, in July, 1710, Col. Nicholson came over with five frigates and a bomb ketch, for the purpose of reducing Port Royal. In this expedition, he was joined by five regiments of troops from New England.

The armament, consisting of the above frigates, and between twenty and thirty transports, belonging to the colonies, sailed from Boston, September 18th. On the 24th, it reached Port Royal, which surrendered October 5th, and, in honor of Queen Anne, was called *Annapolis*.

Animated with his success, Nicholson soon after sailed for England, to solicit another expedition against Canada. Contrary to the expectations of the colonies, the ministry acceded to the proposal, and orders were issued to the northern colonies to get ready their quotas of men.

Sixteen days after these orders arrived, a fleet of men-of-war and transports, under command of Sir Hovenden Walker, with seven regiments of the Duke of Marlborough's troops, and a bat-

talion of marines, under Brigadier-General Hill, sailed into Boston. But the fleet had neither provisions nor pilots. Aided, however, by the prompt and active exertions of the colonies, on the 30th of July, the fleet, consisting of fifteen men-of-war, forty transports, and six store-ships, with nearly seven thousand men, sailed from Boston for Canada.

Shortly after the departure of the fleet, General Nicholson proceeded from Albany towards Canada, at the head of four thousand men, from the colonies of Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey.

The fleet arrived in the St. Lawrence, August 14th. In proceeding up the river, through the unskilfulness of the pilots, and by contrary winds, it was in imminent danger of entire destruction. On the 22d, about midnight, the seamen discovered that they were driven on the north shore, among islands and rocks. Eight or nine of the British transports, on board of which were about one thousand seven hundred officers and soldiers, were cast away, and nearly one thousand men were lost. Upon this disaster, no further attempts were made to prosecute the expedition. The fleet sailed directly for England, and the provincial troops returned home. Gen. Nicholson, who had advanced to Lake George, hearing of the fate of the expedition on the St. Lawrence, returned with the land forces, and abandoned the enterprise.

The failure of this expedition was unjustly imputed, by the mother country, wholly to New England; nor did the colonies receive any credit for their vigorous exertions in raising men and fitting out the fleet. The expedition was not, however, without a beneficial effect, as it probably prevented Annapolis from falling into the hands of the enemy.

13. The spring of 1712 opened with new depredations of the enemy upon the frontier settlements. Oyster River, Exeter, York, Wells, &c., were again attacked and plundered. Many inhabitants, in different parts of the country, were murdered, although, in some portions of the colonies, one half of the militia were constantly on duty.

14. The northern colonies were not alone in the distresses of Queen Anne's war. Carolina, then the southern frontier of the American colonies, had her full share in its expenses and sufferings.

Before official intelligence had been received of the declaration of war by England against France and Spain, in 1702, although war had actually been declared, Gov

Moore, of the southern settlements in Carolina, proposed to the assembly of the colony an expedition against the Spanish settlement of St. Augustine, in Florida.

Although assured of its easy conquest, and of being amply rewarded by its treasures of gold and silver, numbers of the more considerate in the assembly were opposed to the expedition. A majority, however, being in favor of it, two thousand pounds were voted, and one thousand two hundred men were raised, of whom one half were Indians; but the expedition entirely failed.

With the forces above named, and some merchant vessels, impressed as transports, Gov. Moore sailed for St. Augustine. The design was for Col. Daniel, an enterprising officer, to proceed by the inland passage, and to attack the town by land, with a party of militia and Indians; while Moore was to proceed by sea, and take possession of the harbor. Daniel advanced against the town, entered, and plundered it, before the governor's arrival. The Spaniards, however, retired to the castle, with their principal riches, and with provisions for four months.

The governor, on his arrival, could effect nothing for want of artillery. In this emergency, Daniel was despatched to Jamaica for cannon, mortars, &c. During his absence, two large Spanish ships appearing off the harbor, Gov. Moore hastily raised the siege, abandoned his shipping, and made a precipitate retreat into Carolina. Col. Daniel, having no intelligence that the siege had been raised, on his return, stood in for the harbor, and narrowly escaped the ships of the enemy. In consequence of this rash and unfortunate enterprise, the colony was loaded with a debt of six thousand pounds, which gave rise to the first paper currency in Carolina, and was the means of filling the colony with dissension and tumult.

15. The failure of this expedition was soon after, in a measure, compensated by a successful war with the Apalachian Indians, who, in consequence of their connection with the Spaniards, became insolent and hostile. Gov. Moore, with a body of white men and Indian allies, marched into the heart of their country, and compelled them to submit to the English.

All the towns of the tribes between the rivers Altamaha and Savannah, were burnt, and between six hundred and eight hundred Indians were made prisoners.

16. Although this enterprise was successful, new dangers soon threatened the colony. Its invasion was attempted, 1707, by the French and Spaniards, in order to annex Carolina to Florida. The expedition, headed by Le Feboure, consisted of a French frigate, and four armed sloops, having about eight hundred men on board. Owing to the prompt and vigorous measures of Johnson, who had superseded Moore as governor, the enemy were repulsed, and the threatened calamity averted.

No sooner was the intended invasion rumored abroad, than preparations were commenced to repel the enemy. The militia were mustered and trained, and the fortifications of Charleston and other places repaired. These preparations were scarcely completed, before the fleet of the enemy appeared. Some time elapsed, however, before they crossed the bar, which enabled the governor to alarm the surrounding country, and to call in great numbers of the militia.

At length, with a fair wind, the enemy passed the bar, and sent a summons to the governor to surrender. Four hours were allowed him to return his answer. But the governor informed the messenger that he did not wish one minute. On the reception of this answer, the enemy seemed to hesitate, and attempted nothing that day.

The day succeeding, a party of the enemy, landing on James Island, burnt a village by the river's side. Another party, of one hundred and sixty, landed at Wando Neck. The next day, both these parties were dislodged; the latter party being surprised, and nearly all killed or taken prisoners.

This success so animated the Carolinians, that it was determined to attack the enemy by sea. This was attempted with a force of six vessels, under command of William Rhet; but on the appearance of Rhet, the enemy weighed anchor, and precipitately fled.

Some days succeeding this, Monsieur Arbuset appeared on the coast with a ship of force, and landed a number of men at Sewee Bay. Rhet sailed out against him, and, at the same time, Capt. Fenwick crossed the river, and marched to attack the enemy by land. After a brisk engagement, Fenwick took the enemy on land prisoners; and Rhet succeeded in capturing the ship.

17. In 1710, a large number of Palatines, inhabitants of a Palatinate, a small territory in Germany, whose governor or prince is called a Palatine, arrived and settled on the Roanoke, in Albemarle and Bath counties,

within the boundaries of North Carolina. These were a great accession to the strength and numbers of the colony, which, although of sixty years' standing, was exceedingly small.

The same year, near three thousand of the same people came to New York. Some settled in that city, and built the old Lutheran church: others settled on Livingston's manor. Some went into Pennsylvania, and, at subsequent periods, were followed by many thousands of their countrymen.

Two years after the above settlers arrived in Carolina, and during Queen Anne's war, a plot was laid by the Corees and Tuscaroras, with other Indian tribes, to massacre the whole number. This plot was soon so far put in execution, that one hundred and seven settlers were butchered in their houses in a single night. Information of their distress being conveyed to Charleston, Col. Barnwell, with six hundred militia and three hundred and fifty friendly Indians, explored their way through the intervening wilderness, and came to their relief. On his arrival, Col. B. surprised the Tuscaroras, killed three hundred of them, and made one hundred prisoners.

The surviving Indians fled to a town which had been fortified by the tribe; but here they were again attacked by Barnwell, who killed great numbers of them, and compelled the remainder to sue for peace. It is estimated that the Tuscaroras, in this war, lost one thousand of their number. The remainder of the tribe, early after the war, abandoned the country, and became united with the Five Nations, which since that time have been called the *Six Nations*.

18. The following year, March 31st, 1713, a treaty of peace was concluded at Utrecht, between England and France. This relieved the apprehensions of the northern part of the country, and put a welcome period to an expensive and distressing war. After the peace was known in America, the eastern Indians sent in a flag and desired peace. The governor of Massachusetts, with his council, and with that of New Hampshire, met them at Portsmouth, received their submission, and entered into terms of pacification.

By the above treaty between England and France, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia were ceded to Great Britain. It was also stipulated, that "the subjects of France, inhabiting Canada and other places, shall hereafter give no hinderance or molestation to the Five Nations, nor to the other nations of Indians who are friends to Great Britain." By the treaty, also, the French relinquished all claim to the Five Nations, and to all parts of their territories, and, as far as respected themselves, entitled the British crown to the sovereignty of the country.

19. The termination of Queen Anne's war gave peace to the northern colonies, but the contest with the Indians continued for some time to distress the Carolinians.

Scarcely had the people recovered from the above war with the Corees and Tuscaroras, before they were threatened with a calamity still greater and more general. The Yamosees, a powerful tribe of Indians, with all the Indian tribes from Florida to Cape Fear river, formed a conspiracy for the total extirpation of the Carolinians. The 15th of April, 1715, was fixed upon as the day of general destruction. Owing, however, to the wisdom, despatch and firmness of Governor Craven, and the blessing of Providence, the calamity was in a measure averted, and the colonies saved, though at the expense, during the war, of near four hundred of the inhabitants. The Yamosees were expelled the province, and took refuge among the Spaniards in Florida.

20. In 1719, the government of Carolina, which till now had been proprietary, was changed, the charter being declared by the king's privy council to have been forfeited; and from this time, the colony was taken under the royal protection, under which it continued till the American revolution.

The people had long been disgusted with the management of the proprietors, and were resolved, at all hazards, to execute their own laws, and defend the rights of the province. A subscription to this effect was drawn up and generally signed.

On the meeting of the assembly, a committee was sent with this subscription to the governor, Robert Johnson, requesting him to accept the government of the province, under the king, instead of the proprietors.

Upon his refusal, the assembly chose Col. James Moore governor, under the crown; and on the 21st of December, 1719, the convention and militia marched to Charleston fort, and proclaimed Moore governor in his majesty's name.

The Carolinians, having assumed the government, in behalf of the king, referred their complaints to the royal ear. On a full

hearing of the case, the privy council adjudged that the proprietors had forfeited their charter. From this time, therefore, the colony, as stated above, was taken under the royal protection, under which it continued till the American revolution.

This change was followed, in 1729, by another, nearly as important. This was an agreement between the proprietors and the crown, that the former should surrender to the crown their right and interest both to the government and soil, for the sum of seventeen thousand five hundred pounds sterling. This agreement being carried into effect, the province was divided into North and South Carolina, each province having a distinct governor under the crown of England.

21. It has been stated that peace was concluded by Massachusetts and New Hampshire, with the eastern Indians, soon after the pacification at Utrecht, in 1713. This peace, however, was of short duration, dissatisfaction arising on the part of the Indians, because of the encroachments of the English on their lands, and because trading-houses were not erected for the purchase of their commodities.

The governor of Massachusetts promised them redress; but, the general court not carrying his stipulations into execution, the Indians became irritated, and, at the same time, being excited by the French Jesuits, were roused to war, which, in July, 1722, became general, and continued to distress the eastern settlements until 1725.

The tribes engaged in the war were the Norridgewocks, Penobscots, St. Francois, Cape Sable, and St. John Indians. In June, 1725, hostilities ceased, soon after which a treaty was signed by the Indians, and was afterwards ratified by commissioners from Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Nova Scotia. This treaty was greatly applauded; and under it, owing to the more pacific feelings of the Indians, and the more faithful observance of its stipulations by the English, the colonies experienced unusual tranquillity for a long time.

22. The settlement of GEORGIA was begun in 1733, and was named after King George II., at that time on the throne of England. In the settlement of Georgia, two objects were principally in view—the relief of indigent inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland, and the greater security of the Carolinas.

The charter was granted to twenty-one persons, under the title of trustees, and passed the seals June 9th, 1732. The first settlers, one hundred and sixteen in number, embarked from England in November of the same year, under General Oglethorpe. They landed at Charleston, whence they repaired to *Yamacraw-bluff*, on Savannah river, and commenced the town of that name.

The colony, for many years, did not flourish. In their regulations for its management, the trustees enacted that all lands granted by them to settlers should revert back, in case of the fail ure of male succession; although certain privileges were to be allowed to widows and daughters. At the same time, all trade with the Indians was prohibited, unless by virtue of special li conse. The use of negroes, and the importation of rum, were absolutely forbidden.

Although the trustees were actuated by the purest motives—by principles of humanity, and a regard to the health and morals of the inhabitants—this system of regulations was unfitted to the condition of the poor settlers, and was highly injurious to their increase and prosperity.

Emigrants, however, continued to arrive. The first adventurers, being poor and unenterprising, a more active and efficient race was desirable. To induce such to settle in the colony, eleven towns were laid out in shares of fifty acres each; one of which was offered to each new settler. Upon this, large numbers of Swiss, Scotch, and Germans, became adventurers to the colony. Within three years from the first settlement, one thousand four hundred planters had arrived.

To aid the colony, parliament made several grants of money; individuals also gave considerable sums for the same purpose: owing, however, to the impolitic regulations of the trustees, the colony maintained only a feeble existence.

Oglethorpe and his party arrived on the banks of the Savannah, on the first of February. For several days, the people were employed in erecting a fortification, and in felling the woods, while the general marked out the town. The first house was begun on the ninth, and the town, after the Indian name of the river, was called Savannah. The fort being completed, the guns mounted, and the colony put in a state of safety, the next object of Oglethorpe's attention was to treat with the Indians, for a share of their possessions. In his intercourse with the Indians, he was greatly assisted by an Indian woman, whom he found at Savannah, by the name of Mary Musgrove. She had resided among the English, in another part of the country, and was well acquainted with their language. She was of great use, therefore, to Gen. Oglethorpe, as an interpreter, for which service he gave her a hundred pounds a year.

Among those who came over with Gen. Oglethorpe was a man by the name of Thomas Bosomworth, who was the chaplain of the colony. Soon after his arrival at Savannah, he married the above-mentioned Mary Musgrove. Unhappily, Bosomworth was at heart a bad man, though by profession a minister of the gospel. He was distinguished for his pride and love of riches and influence. At the same time, he was artful and intriguing; yet, on account of his profession, he was, for a time, much respected by the Indians.

At one of the great councils of the Indians, this artful man induced the chiefs to crown Malatche, one of the greatest among them, emperor of all the Creeks. After this, he persuaded his wife to call herself the eldest sister of Malatche; and she told the Indians, that one of her grandfathers had been made king, by the Great Spirit, over all the Creeks. The Indians believed what Mary told them; for they had become very proud of her since Gen. Oglethorpe had taken so much notice of her, and had been so kind to her; and they acknowledged her for their queen. They called a great meeting of the chiefs, and Mary made them a long talk. She told them, that the whites were their enemies, and had done them much injury—that they were getting away the lands of the Indians, and would soon drive them from all their possessions. Said she, "We must assert our rights—we must arm ourselves against them—we must drive them from our territories. Let us call forth our warriors—I will head them. Stand by me, and the houses which they have erected shall smoke in ruins." The spirit of Queen Mary was contagious. Every chief present declared himself ready to defend her to the last drop of his blood.

After due preparation, the warriors were called forth. They had painted themselves afresh, and sharpened anew their tomanawks for the battle. Their march was now commenced. Queen Mary, attended by her infamous husband, the real author and instigator of all their discontent, headed the savage throng. Before they reached Savannah, their approach was announced. The people were justly alarmed. They were few in number, and though they had a fortification and cannon, they had no good reason to hope, that they should be able to ward off the deadly blow which was aimed against them.

By this time, the savages were in sight of Savannah. At this critical moment, an Englishman, by the name of Noble Jones, a bold and daring man, rode forth, with a few spirited men, on horseback, to meet them. As he approached them, he exclaimed, in a voice like thunder, "Ground your arms! ground your arms! not an armed Indian shall set his foot in this town."

Awe-struck at his lofty tone, and perceiving him and his companions ready to dash in among them, they paused, and soon af-

ter laid down their arms. Bosomworth and his queen were now summoned to march into the city—the Indian chiefs were also allowed to enter, but without their arms. On reaching the parade ground, the thunder of fifteen cannon, fired at the same moment, told them what they might expect, should they persist in their hostile designs. The Indians were now marched to the house of the president of the council in Savannah. Bosomworth was required to leave the Indians, while the president had a friendly talk with them.

In his address to them, he assured them of the kindness of the English, and demanded what they meant by coming in this warlike manner. In reply, they told the president that they had heard that Mary was to be sent over the great waters, and they had come to learn why they were to lose their queen. Finding that the Indians had been deceived, and that Bosomworth was the author of all the trouble, and that he had even intended to get possession of the magazine, and to destroy the whites, the council directed him to be seized and thrown into prison. This step Mary resented with great spirit. Rushing forth among the Indians, she openly cursed Gen. Oglethorpe, although he had raised her from poverty and distress, and declared that the whole world should know, that the ground she trod upon was her own.

The warlike spirit of the Indians being thus likely to be renewed, it was thought advisable to imprison Mary also. This was accordingly done. At the same time, to appease the Indians, a sumptuous feast was made for the chiefs by the president, who, during the better state of feeling, which seemed to prevail, took occasion to explain to them the wickedness of Bosomworth, and how, by falsehood and cunning, he had led them to believe that Mary was really their queen—a descendant of one of their great chiefs. "Brothers," said he, "this is not true—Queen Mary is no other than Mary Musgrove, whom I found poor, and who has been made the dupe of the artful Bosomworth, and you, brothers, the dupes of both."

The aspect of things was now pleasant. The Indians were beginning to be satisfied of the villany of Bosomworth, and of the real character of Mary; but, at this moment, the door was thrown open, and, to the surprise of all, Mary burst into the room. She had made her escape from prison, and, learning what was going on, she rushed forward with the fury of a tigress. "Seize your arms!" exclaimed she, "seize your arms! remember your promise, and defend your queen." The sight of their queen seemed to bring back, in a moment, all the original ardor of the enterprise. In an instant, every chief seized his tomahawk, and sprang from the ground, to rally at the call of their queen.

At this moment, Capt. Jones, who was present, perceiving the

danger of the president and the other whites, drew his sword, and demanded peace. The majesty of his countenance—the fire of his eye—the glittering of his sword—told Queen Mary what she might expect, should she attempt to raise any higher the feverish spirits of her subjects. The Indians cast an eye towards her, as if to inquire what they should do. Her countenance fell. Perceiving his advantage, Jones stepped forward, and in the presence of the Indians, seized Mary, and conducted her back to prison.

A short imprisonment so far humbled both Bosomworth and Mary, that each wrote a letter, confessing what they had done, and promising, if released, that they would conduct with more propriety in future. The people kindly forgave them both, and they left the city. But they did not perform their promise. Bosomworth again tried to make Mary queen, and to get possession of three large islands called Ossabaw, Sapelo, and St. Catherine's. He pretended that they had been given to him by the Indians. Finding, however, that he could not sustain his claim, he went over to England with Mary, and there instituted a lawsuit for their recovery. At length, having obtained St. Catharine's island, by a judgment of the court, he returned with his wife, and took up his residence on that island. Here Mary died; some time after which Bosomworth married one of his own servants, who did not survive him. At length, he finished his own inglorious life, and was buried between his two wives, upon the island which had cost him so much trouble.

23. Gen. Oglethorpe, having been appointed commander-in-chief of the forces of South Carolina and Georgia, projected an expedition against St. Augustine, in 1740. Aided by Virginia and Carolina, he marched, at the head of more than two thousand men, for Florida; and, after taking two small Spanish forts, Diego and Moosa, he sat down before St. Augustine. Capt. Price, with several twenty-gun ships, assisted by sea; but after all their exertions, the general was forced to raise the siege, and return with considerable loss.

24. Two years after, 1742, the Spaniards invaded Georgia, in turn. A Spanish armament, consisting of thirty-two sail, with three thousand men, under command of Don Manuel de Monteano, sailed from St. Augustine, and arrived in the river Altamaha. The expedition, although fitted out at great expense, failed of accomplishing its object.

Gen. Oglethorpe was, at this time, at Fort Simons. Finding himself unable to retain possession of it, having but about seven hundred men, he spiked his cannon, and, destroying his military stores, retreated to his head-quarters at Frederica.

On the first prospect of an invasion, Gen. Oglethorpe had applied to the governor of South Carolina for assistance; but the Carolinians, fearing for the safety of their own territory, and not approving of Gen. Oglethorpe's management in his late expedition against St. Augustine, declined furnishing troops, but voted supplies.

In this state of danger and perplexity, the general resorted to stratagem. A French soldier belonging to his army had deserted to the enemy. Fearing the consequences of their learning his weakness, he devised a plan by which to destroy the credit of any information that the deserter might give.

With this view, he wrote a letter to the French deserter in the Spanish camp, addressing him as if he were a spy of the English This letter he bribed a Spanish captive to deliver, in which he directed the deserter to state to the Spaniards, that he was in a weak and defenceless condition, and to urge them to an attack.

Should he not be able, however, to persuade them to this, he wished him to induce them to continue three days longer at their quarters, in which time he expected two thousand men, and six British men-of-war, from Carolina. The above letter, as was intended, was delivered to the Spanish general, instead of the deserter, who immediately put the latter in irons.

A council of war was called, and, while deliberating upon the measures which should be taken, three supply ships, which had been voted by Carolina, appeared in sight. Imagining these to be the men-of-war alluded to in the letter, the Spaniards, in great haste, fired the fort, and embarked, leaving behind them several cannon, and a quantity of provisions. By this artful, but unjustifiable expedient, the country was relieved of its invaders, and Georgia, and probably a great part of South Carolina, saved from ruin.

25. In 1752, the colony continuing in a languishing condition, although parliament had at different times given them nearly one hundred thousand pounds, and many complaints having been made against the system of regulations adopted by the trustees, they surrendered their charter to the crown, upon which the government became regal. In 1755, a general court was established.

26. March 29th, 1744, *Great Britain, under*

George II., declared war against France and Spain. The most important event of this war, in America, was the capture of Louisburg from the French, by the New England colonies, under command of Sir William Pepperell.

After the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, the French had built Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton, as a security to their navigation and fishery, and had fortified it at an expense of five millions and a half of dollars. The fortifications consisted of a rampart of stone, nearly thirty-six feet in height, and a ditch eighty feet wide. There were six bastions, and three batteries, with embrasures for one hundred and forty-eight cannon, and six mortars. On an island, at the entrance of the harbor, was another battery of thirty cannon, carrying twenty-eight pounds shot; and at the bottom of the harbor, opposite the entrance, was situated the royal battery of twenty-eight forty-two pounders, and two eighteen pounders. The entrance of the town, on the land side, was at the west, over a draw-bridge, near which was a circular battery, mounting sixteen guns of twenty-four pounds shot. These works had been twenty-five years in building, and though not entirely completed, were of such strength, that the place was sometimes called the "Gibraltar of America."

The acquisition of this place was deemed eminently important to New England, since, while in possession of the French, it had furnished a safe and convenient retreat to such privateers as disturbed and captured the inhabitants of the colonies employed in the fisheries.

Impressed with the necessity of measures to secure this fortress, Gov. Shirley, of Massachusetts, had solicited the assistance of the British ministry, for the acquisition of Cape Breton. Early in January, 1745, before receiving an answer to his letters to England, he communicated to the general court, under an oath of secrecy, a plan which he had formed for an attack on Louisburg. To this plan strong objections were urged, and the proposal of the governor was at first rejected; but upon reconsideration, it was carried by a majority of a single voice. Circulars were immediately addressed to the colonies as far south as Pennsylvania, requesting their assistance, and that an embargo might be laid on all their ports. The New England colonies only, however, were concerned in the expedition. Of the forces raised, Massachusetts furnished three thousand two hundred and fifty; Connecticut five hundred and sixteen; Rhode Island and

New Hampshire, each, three hundred. The naval force consisted of twelve ships and vessels. In two months the army was enlisted, victualled, and equipped for service.

On the twenty-third of March, an express boat, which had been sent to Com. Warren, in the West Indies, to invite his cooperation, returned to Boston, with advices from him, that, as the contemplated expedition was a colonial affair, without orders from England, he must excuse himself from any concern in the enterprise. This intelligence was peculiarly unwelcome; but, the governor and general concealing the tenor of the advice, the army was embarked, and the next morning the fleet sailed. On the fourth of April, the fleet and army arrived in safety at Canso, where they were joined by the troops from New Hampshire, and soon after by those from Connecticut.

Most unexpectedly to the general, Com. Warren, with his fleet, arrived at Canso, having, soon after his advices by the express boat to Gov. Shirley, received orders to repair to North America, and to concert measures with the governor for his majesty's service. Hearing that the fleet had sailed for Canso, he proceeded directly for that port. Great was the joy which pervaded the whole fleet and camp, on the arrival of this important auxiliary force. After a short consultation with Gen. Pepperell, Com. Warren sailed to cruise before Louisburg, and, not long after, was followed by the fleet and army, which, on the thirtieth of April, arrived in Chapearouge bay. The enemy were, until this moment, in profound ignorance that any attack was meditated against them.

The sight of the transports gave the alarm to the French, and a detachment was sent to oppose the landing of the troops. But, while the general diverted the attention of the enemy by a feint at one place, he was landing his men at another.

The next morning, four hundred of the English marched round behind the hills to the north-east harbor, setting fire to all the houses and stores, till they came within a mile of the royal battery. The conflagration of the stores, in which was a considerable quantity of tar, concealed the English troops, at the same time that it increased the alarm of the French so greatly, that they precipitately abandoned the royal battery. Upon their flight, the English took possession of it, and, by means of a well-directed fire from it, seriously damaged the town.

The main body of the army now commenced the siege. For fourteen nights, they were occupied in drawing cannon towards the town, over a morass, in which oxen and horses could not be used. Incredible was the toil; but what could not men accomplish, who had been accustomed to draw the pines of the forests for masts? By the 20th of May, several fascine batteries had

been erected, one of which mounted five forty-two pounders. On opening these batteries, they did great execution.



In the mean time, Com. Warren captured the Vigilant, a French ship of seventy-four guns, and with her five hundred and sixty men, together with great quantities of military stores. This capture was of great consequence, as it not only increased the English force, and added to their military supplies, but as it seriously lessened the strength of the enemy. Shortly after this capture, the number of the English fleet was considerably augmented by the arrival of several men-of-war. A combined attack by sea and land was now determined on, and fixed for the 18th of June.

Previously to the arrival of this additional naval force, much had been accomplished towards the reduction of the place. The inland battery had been silenced; the western gate of the town was beaten down, and a breach effected in the wall; the circular battery of sixteen guns was nearly ruined, and the western flank of the king's bastion was nearly demolished.

Such being the injured state of the works, and perceiving preparations making for a joint assault, to sustain which little prospect remained, on the 15th the enemy desired a cessation of hostilities, and on the 17th of June, after a siege of forty-nine days, the city of Louisburg, and the island of Cape Breton, were surrendered to his Britannic majesty

Thus successfully terminated a daring expedition, which had been undertaken without the knowledge of the mother country. The acquisition of the fortress of Louisburg was as useful and important to the colonies, and to the British empire, as its reduction was surprising to that empire and mortifying to the court of France.

Besides the stores and prizes which fell into the hands of the English, which were estimated at little less than a million sterling, security was given to the colonies in their fisheries; Nova Scotia was preserved, and the trade and fisheries of France nearly ruined.

27. The capture of Louisburg roused the court of France to revenge. Under the Duke D'Anville, a nobleman of great courage, an armament was despatched to America, in 1746, consisting of forty ships of war, fifty-six transports, with three thousand five hundred men, and forty thousand stands of arms for the use of the French and Indians in Canada. The object of this expedition was to recover possession of Cape Breton, and to attack the colonies. A merciful Providence, however, averted the blow, and, by delaying the fleet, and afterwards disabling it in a storm, blasted the hopes of the enemy.

Great was the consternation of the colonies, when the news arrived that the French fleet was near the American coast, and greatly increased, on learning that no English fleet was in quest of it.

Several ships of this formidable French fleet were damaged by storms; others were lost, and one forced to return to Brest, on account of a malignant disease among her crew. Two or three only of the ships, with a few of the transports, arrived at Chebucto, now Halifax. Here the admiral died, through mortification; or, as some say, by poison. The vice-admiral came to a similar tragical death, by running himself through the body. That part of the fleet that arrived, sailed with a view to attack Annapolis; but a storm scattered them, and prevented the accomplishment of this object.

28. In April, 1748, preliminaries of peace were signed between France and England, at Aix la Chapelle, soon after which hostilities ceased. The definitive treaty was signed in October. Prisoners on all sides

were to be released without ransom, and all conquests made during the war were to be mutually restored.

NOTES.

29. MANNERS OF THE COLONISTS. The colonies were now peopled with inhabitants, by far the greater part of whom were born and educated in America. And although the first settlers were collected from most, or all, the countries of Europe, and emigrants from various nations continued to flock to America, still we may observe, during this period, a gradual assimilation of national manners and character. The peculiarities of each class became less distinct by intercourse with the others, and every succeeding generation seemed to exhibit less strikingly those traits which distinguished the preceding.

Although this is true with respect to the American colonies generally, there were some exceptions. Some villages, or territories, being settled exclusively by emigrants speaking a different language from that generally spoken—as the Germans, for example—or entertaining some peculiar religious notions—as the Quakers—still preserved their own peculiar manners.

But, in attempting to ascribe some general character to the people of the colonies during this period, we might consider them, as, during our second period, on the whole, exhibiting three varieties; viz. the rigid Puritan English of the north, the Dutch in New York, and the luxurious English of the south. The austerity of the north was, however, much relaxed. The elegant varieties of life, which before had been prohibited, were tolerated, and the refinements of polished society appeared among the higher classes. The strong lines of Dutch manners in New York were slowly disappearing, under an English government, and by means of the settlement of English among them. The manners of the south were assuming an aspect of more refinement, particularly among the higher classes, but showed little other change.

30. RELIGION. During this period, the spirit of religious bigotry and intolerance may be observed to have abated in a very considerable degree. The conduct of those sects, which had called forth those severe and un-

justifiable restrictions upon the freedom of religious worship, had become less offensive and exceptionable; and at the close of this period, religious persecution had ceased in all the colonies, and the rights of conscience were generally recognized.

In 1692, the *Mennonites* were introduced into Pennsylvania, and settled at Germantown. Their increase, however, has been small.

In 1719, the *Tunkers*, or General Baptists, arrived at Philadelphia, and dispersed themselves into several parts of Pennsylvania.

In 1741, the *Moravians* were introduced into America, by Count Zinzendorf, and settled at Bethlehem, Pennsylvania. Regularity, industry, ingenuity, and economy, are characteristic of this people. They have considerably increased, and are a respectable body of Christians.

The *German Lutherans* were first introduced into the American colonies during this period, and settled principally in Pennsylvania and New York.

Episcopacy was considerably extended during this period. In 1693, it was introduced into New York; into New Jersey and Rhode Island in 1702; into South Carolina in 1703, by law; in Connecticut in 1704.

In 1708, the Saybrook Platform was formed by a synod composed of Congregational ministers, under authority of the legislature of Connecticut.

About the year 1737, a revival of religion very extensively prevailed in New England. At this time, great numbers united themselves to the church, and testified, by their conduct through life, the genuineness of their profession.

The celebrated Whitfield came to America about the year 1740 and produced great religious excitement by his singular powers of pulpit eloquence. He did not found any peculiar sect in this country, although he gave rise to that of the *Calvinistic Methodists* in England.

31. Trade and Commerce. Although the trade of the colonies began to feel the restrictions imposed upon it by the mother country, still it steadily increased during this period.

From the very commencement of the colonies, the mother country was not without her jealousies respecting their increase in population, trade, and manufactures. Inquiries on these points were instituted, and opportunities sought to keep in check the spirit of colonial enterprise. Laws were enacted from time to time, designed and calculated, not only to make the colonies de-

pend on the mother country for her manufactures, but also to limit their trade and commerce, and keep them in safe subjection to England.

As illustrating this course of policy, we may notice several laws of parliament. In 1732, an act was passed, prohibiting "the exportation of hats out of the plantations of America, and to restrain the number of apprentices taken by hat-makers." So also the act of 1750 prohibited, on penalty of two hundred pounds, "the erection of any mill for slitting or rolling of iron, or any plating forge to work with a tilt hammer; or any furnace for making steel, in any of the colonies." At the same time, encouragement was given to export *pig* and *bar* iron to England for her manufactories. In like manner was prohibited the exportation from one province to another by water, and even the carriage by land, on horseback, or in a cart, of all wools and woollen goods of the produce of America. The colonies were also compelled by law to procure many articles from England, which they could have purchased twenty per cent. cheaper in other markets.

But, notwithstanding these restrictions, trade and commerce gradually and steadily increased. To England the colonies exported lumber of all sorts, hemp, flax, pitch, tar, oil, rosin, copper ore, pig and bar iron, whale fins, tobacco, rice, fish, indigo, flaxseed, beeswax, raw silk, &c. They also built many vessels, which were sold in the mother country.

But the importation of goods from England, in consequence of the course pursued by the British government, was still much greater than the amount of the exports to England. In 1728, Sir William Keith stated that the colonies then consumed one sixth part of all the woollen manufactures exported from Great Britain, and more than double that value in linen and calicoes; also great quantities of English manufactured silks, small wares, household furniture, trinkets, and a very considerable value in East India goods. From 1739 to 1756, this importation of goods from England amounted to one million of pounds sterling annually, on an average.

But, if the amount of imports from Great Britain was thus more than the colonies exported thither, they would fall in debt to England. How did they pay this balance of trade against them? It was done by gold and silver obtained chiefly from the West India settlements, to which they exported lumber, fish of an inferior quality, beef, pork, butter, horses, poultry, and other live stock, an inferior kind of tobacco, corn, cider, apples, cabbages, onions, &c. They built also many small vessels, which found a ready market.

The cod and whale fisheries were becoming considerable; they were principally carried on by New England. The codfish were sold in Spain, France, England, the West Indies, &c.; and the

money obtained for them aided the colonies in paying the balance of trade against them in England.

32. AGRICULTURE. Agriculture, during this period, was greatly improved and extended. Immense tracts of forests were cleared, and more enlightened modes of husbandry were introduced. The number of articles produced by agriculture was also increased.

The colonies now not only raised a sufficient supply of food for their own use, but their exports became great. Wheat and other English grain were the principal products of the middle colonies; grain, beef, pork, horses, butter, cheese, &c., were the chief products of the northern colonies; tobacco, wheat, and rice, were the principal products of the south.

In the south, also, large numbers of swine ran wild in the forests, living upon mast. These were taken, salted down, and exported to a considerable extent.

33. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. Under the head of Commerce, we have noticed the obstacles interposed by Great Britain to the progress of arts and manufactures. Notwithstanding these, however, the coarser kinds of cutlery, some coarse cloths, both linen and woollen, hats, paper, shoes, household furniture, farming utensils, &c., were manufactured to a considerable extent; not sufficient, however, to supply the inhabitants. All these manufactures were on a small scale; cloths were made in some families, for their own consumption.

The art of printing made considerable progress during this period. A newspaper, the first in North America, called *The Boston Weekly News-Letter*, was established in 1704. Before the close of this period, ten others were established—four in New England; two in New York; two in Pennsylvania; one in South Carolina; and one in Maryland. The number of books published was also considerable, although they were executed in a coarse style, and were generally books of devotion, or for the purposes of education.

34. POPULATION. At the expiration of our second period, we estimated the population of the English colonies in America at 200,000 souls. About the close of our third period, Franklin calculated that there were then one million or upwards, and that scarce 80,000 had been brought over sea.

This estimate of the population of America very nearly accords with an estimate made in London, from "authentic authorities," May, 1755, which is as follows:—

New Hampshire	30,000	New York	100,000
Massachusetts Bay	220,000	The Jerseys	60,000
R. Island and Providence Plantations	35,000	Pennsylvania	250,000
Connecticut	100,000	Maryland	85,000
		Virginia	85,000
		North Carolina	45,000
New England	385,000	South Carolina	30,000
Mid. and S. Colonies	661,000	Georgia	6,000
Total	1,046,000		661,000

35. EDUCATION. The southern colonies continued to treat the subject of education differently from the northern colonies, in this respect; in the north, one of the first objects of legislation was to provide for the education of *all classes*; in the south, the education of the higher classes only was an object of public attention.

The first public institution for the purposes of education, which succeeded in the south, was that of William and Mary College, in Virginia, established in 1692, by the sovereigns whose names it bears.

Yale College, in Connecticut, was commenced in 1700; eleven of the principal ministers in the neighboring towns, who had been appointed to adopt such measures as they should deem expedient, on the subject of a college, agreeing to found one in the colony. The next year, the legislature granted them a charter. The college was begun at Saybrook, where was held the first commencement, in 1702. In 1717, it was removed to New Haven, where it became permanently established. It was named after the Hon. Elihu Yale, governor of the East India Company, who was its principal benefactor.

The college at Princeton, New Jersey, called "Nassau Hall," was first founded by charter from John Hamilton, Esq., president of the council, about the year 1738, and was enlarged by Gov. Belcher, in 1747.

REFLECTIONS.

36. The history of this period presents the North American colonies to our view, at the same time that they were visited with cruel and desolating wars, still advancing in population, extending their commerce, forming new settlements, enlarging the boundaries of their territory, and laying wider and deeper the

foundations of a future nation. And, while we look back, with admiration, upon the hardy spirit which carried our ancestors through scenes so trying, and enabled them to reap prosperity from the crimsoned fields of battle and bloodshed, let us be thankful that our lot is cast in a happier day; and that, instead of sharing in the perils of feeble colonies, we enjoy the protection and privileges of a free and powerful nation.

In addition to the reflections subjoined to the account which we have given of the "Salem witchcraft," we may add another, respecting the danger of *popular delusion*. In that portion of our history, we see a kind of madness rising up, and soon stretching its influence over a whole community. And such, too, is the pervading power of the spell, that the wise and ignorant, the good and bad, are alike subject to its control, and, for the time, alike incapable of judging or reasoning aright. Now, whenever we see a community divided into parties, and agitated by some general excitement; when we feel ourselves borne along on one side or the other, by the popular tide,—let us inquire whether we are not acting under the influence of a delusion, which a few years, perhaps a few months, or days, may dispel and expose. Nor, at such a time, let us regard our sincerity, or our consciousness of integrity, or the seeming clearness and certainty of our reasonings, as furnishing an absolute assurance that, after all, we do not mistake, and that our opponents are not right.

Another reflection of some importance, and one that may serve to guard us against censuring, too severely, the wise and good, is suggested by this account of the "Salem witchcraft." It is this, that the best men are liable to err. We should not, therefore, condemn, nor should we withhold our charity from, those who fall into occasional error, provided their characters are, in other respects, such as to lay claim to our good opinion.

UNITED STATES

PERIOD IV.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

Extending from the Declaration of War by England against France, 1756, to the Commencement of Hostilities by Great Britain against the American Colonies, in the Battle of Lexington, 1775.

Sec. 1. The war which ended in the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, (*Period* III. 28.) had been highly injurious to the American colonies; and the return of peace found them in a state of impoverishment and distress. Great losses had been sustained in their commerce, and many of their vessels had been seized on the coast by privateers. Bills of credit, to the amount of several millions, had been issued to carry on the war, which they were now unable to redeem; and the losses of men in various expeditions against the enemy, had seriously retarded the increase of population.

The expenses of the northern colonies, including New England and New York, during the war, were estimated at not less than one million pounds sterling. Massachusetts alone is said to have paid half this sum, and to have expended nearly four hundred thousand pounds in the expedition against Cape Breton. The expenses of Carolina, for the war in that quarter, were not less in proportion.

To supply the deficiency of money, bills of credit were issued to the amount of several millions. The bills issued by Massachusetts, during two or three years of the war, amounted to between two and three millions currency; while, at the time of

their emission, five or six hundred pounds were equal to only one hundred pounds sterling. Before the complete redemption of these bills, says Dr. Trumbull, in those colonies where their credit was best supported, the depreciation was nearly *twenty for one*.

The losses sustained by the colonies, in the fall of many of their bravest men, during this and the last Indian war, were severely felt. From 1722 to 1749, a period of twenty-seven years, the losses of Massachusetts and New Hampshire equalled the whole increase of their numbers; whereas, in the natural course of population, their numbers would have more than doubled.

Such was the general state of the colonies, at the close of this war. The return of peace was hailed as the harbinger of better days, and the enterprising spirit of the people soon exerted itself to repair the losses which had been sustained. Commerce, therefore, again flourished; population increased; settlements were extended; and the public credit revived.

2. Scarcely, however, had the colonies begun to reap the benefits of peace, before the sound of approaching war filled the land with general anxiety and distress. After an interval of only about eight years, from 1748 to May 18th, 1756, Great Britain, under George II., formally declared war against France; which declaration was reciprocated, on the 9th of June, by a similar declaration, on the part of France, under Louis XV., against Great Britain.

The *general* cause, leading to this war, commonly called the "*French and Indian war*," was the alleged encroachments of the French upon the frontiers of the colonies in America, belonging to the English crown.

These encroachments were made upon Nova Scotia in the east, which had been ceded to Great Britain by the 12th article of the treaty of Utrecht, but to a considerable part of which the French laid claim, and, in several places, were erecting fortifications. In the north and west, they were settling and fortifying Crown Point, and, in the west, were not only attempting to complete a line of forts from the head of the St. Lawrence to the Mississippi, but were encroaching far on Virginia.

The circumstance which served to open the war, was the alleged intrusion of the *Ohio Company* upon the

territory of the French. This company consisted of a number of influential men, from London and Virginia, who had obtained a charter grant of six hundred thousand acres of land, on and near the river Ohio, for the purpose of carrying on the fur trade with the Indians, and of settling the country.

The governor of Canada had early intelligence of the transactions of this company. Fearing that their plan would deprive the French of the advantages of the fur trade, and prevent communications between Canada and Louisiana, he addressed a letter to the governors of New York and Pennsylvania, claiming the country east of the Ohio to the Alleganies, and forbidding the further encroachments of the English traders.

As yet, the Pennsylvanians had principally managed the trade with the Indians. But, being now about to be deprived of it by the Ohio Company, which was opening a road to the Potomac, they excited the fears of the Indians, lest their lands should be taken from them, and gave early intelligence to the French, of the designs and transactions of the company.

The French governor soon manifested his hostile determination, by seizing several of the English traders, and carrying them to a French port on the south of Lake Erie.—The Twightwees, a tribe of Indians in Ohio, near Miami river, among whom the English had been trading, resented the seizure, and, by way of retaliation, took several French traders, and sent them to Pennsylvania.

In the mean time, a communication was opened along the French creek and Allegany river, between Fort Presqu' Ile, on Lake Erie, and the Ohio; and French troops were stationed at convenient distances, secured by temporary fortifications.

The Ohio Company, thus threatened with the destruction of their trade, were loud in their complaints. Dinwiddie, lieutenant-governor of Virginia, to whom these complaints were addressed, laid the subject before the assembly, which ordered a messenger to be despatched to the French commandant on the Ohio, to demand the reasons of his hostile conduct, and to summon the French to evacuate their forts in that region.

3. The person intrusted with this service was *George Washington*, who, at the early age of twenty-one, thus stepped forth in the public cause, and began that line of services which ended in the independence of his country.

The service to which Washington was appointed, was both difficult and dangerous; the place of his destination being above four hundred miles distant, two hundred of which lay through a wilderness inhabited only by Indians. He arrived in safety, however, and delivered a letter from Gov. Dinwiddie to the commandant. Having received a written answer, and secretly taken the dimensions of the fort, he returned. The reply of the commandant to Gov. Dinwiddie was, that he had taken possession of the country, under the direction of the governor-general of Canada, to whom he would transmit his letter, and whose orders only he would obey

4. The British ministry, on being made acquainted with the claims, conduct and determination of the French, without a formal declaration of war, instructed the Virginians to resist their encroachments by force of arms. Accordingly, a regiment was raised in Virginia, which was joined by an independent company from South Carolina; and with this force, Washington, to whom the expedition was intrusted, marched, early in April, 1754, towards the Great Meadows, lying within the disputed territories, for the purpose of expelling the French. The conduct of Washington and his troops was highly creditable to them; but, the French forces being considerably superior, he was obliged to capitulate, with the privilege, however, of returning with his troops to Virginia.

On his arrival at the Great Meadows, he learned that the French had dispossessed some Virginians of a fortification, which the latter were erecting for the Ohio Company, at the confluence of the Allegany and Monongahela, and were engaged in completing it, for their own use. He also learned, that a detachment from that place, then on its march towards the Great Meadows, had encamped for the night in a low and retired situation.

Under the guidance of some friendly Indians, and under cover of a dark and rainy night, this party he surprised and captured. Having erected, at the Great Meadows, a small stockade fort, afterwards called Fort Necessity, he proceeded, with his force, increased by troops from New York, and others from South Carolina, to nearly four hundred men, towards the French fort, du Quesne, where Pittsburg now stands, with the intention of dislodging the enemy. Hearing, however, that the enemy was approaching, he retired to Fort Necessity, where, not long after, he was attacked by a large body of troops from Fort du Quesne, under command of M. de Villier. After an engagement of several hours, de Villier demanded a parley, and offered terms of capitulation. These terms were rejected; but during the night, July 4th, articles were signed, by which Washington was permitted, upon surrendering the fort, to march with his troops, unmolested, to Virginia.

Such was the beginning of open hostilities, which were succeeded by a series of other hostilities characterized by the spirit and manner of war, although the formal declaration of war was not made until 1756, two years after, as already mentioned.

5. The British ministry, perceiving war to be inevitable, recommended to the British colonies in America to unite in some scheme for their common defence. Accordingly, a convention of delegates from Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Maryland, with the lieutenant-governor and council of New York, was held at Albany, in 1754, and a plan of union adopted, resembling, in several of its features, the present constitution of the United States.

But the plan met with the approbation neither of the provincial assemblies, nor the king's council. By the former, it was rejected, because it gave too much power to the crown; and by the latter, because it gave too much power to the people.

According to this plan, a grand council was to be formed, of members chosen by the provincial assemblies, and sent from all the colonies; which council, with a governor-general, appointed by the crown, and having a negative voice, should be empowered to make general laws, to raise money in all the colonies for their defence, to call forth troops, regulate trade, lay duties, &c. &c.

The plan, thus matured, was approved and signed, on the fourth of July, the day that Washington surrendered Fort Necessity, and twenty-two years before the declaration of Independence, by all the delegates, excepting those from Connecticut, who objected to the negative voice of the governor-general.

One circumstance, in the history of this plan, deserves here to be recorded, as evincing the dawning spirit of the revolution. Although the plan was rejected by the provincial assemblies, they declared, without reserve, that, if it were adopted, they would undertake to defend themselves from the French, without assistance from Great Britain. They required but to be left to employ their supplies in their own way, to effect their security and predominance.

The mother country was too jealous to trust such powers with the Americans; but she proposed another plan, designed to lay a foundation for the perpetual dependence and slavery of the colonies. This plan was, that the governors, with one or more of their council, should form a convention to concert measures for the general defence, to erect fortifications, raise men, &c. &c., with power to draw upon the British treasury, to defray all charges; which charges should be reimbursed *by taxes upon the colonies, imposed by acts of parliament.* But to allow the British government the right of taxation—to lay the colonies under the obligations of a debt to be thus liquidated—to subject themselves to the rapacity of king's collectors, we scarcely need say, was a proposal which met with universal disapprobation.

6. Early in the spring of 1755, preparations were made, by the colonies, for vigorous exertions against the enemy. Four expeditions were planned:—*one* against the French in Nova Scotia; a *second* against the French on the Ohio; a *third* against Crown Point; and a *fourth* against Niagara.

7. The expedition against *Nova Scotia*, consisting of three thousand men, chiefly from Massachusetts, was led by Gen. Monckton and Gen. Winslow. With these troops, they sailed from Boston, May 20th, and on the 1st of June, arrived at Chignecto, in the bay of Fundy. After being joined by three hundred British troops, and a small train of artillery, they proceeded against Fort Beau Sejour, which, after four days' investment, surrendered. The name of the fort was now changed to that of Cumberland. From this place Gen. Monckton proceeded farther into the country, took other forts in pos-

session of the French, and disarmed the inhabitants. By this successful expedition, the English possessed themselves of the whole country of Nova Scotia, a part of which, as already noticed, (*Sec.* 2,) the French claimed: its tranquillity was restored, and placed upon a permanent basis.

In this whole expedition, the English lost but twenty men. Large quantities of provisions and military stores fell into their hands, with a number of valuable cannon.

The French force in Nova Scotia being subdued, a difficult question occurred, respecting the disposal of the inhabitants. Fearing that they might join the French in Canada, whom they had before furnished with intelligence, quarters, and provisions, it was determined to disperse them among the English colonies. Under this order, one thousand nine hundred were thus dispersed.

8. The expedition against the French *on the Ohio*, was led by Gen. Braddock, a British officer, who commenced his march from Virginia, in June, with about two thousand men. Apprehensive that Fort du Quesne, against which he was proceeding, might be reinforced, Braddock, with one thousand two hundred selected troops, hastened his march, leaving Col. Dunbar to follow more slowly, with the other troops and the heavy baggage.

On the 8th of July, Braddock had advanced sixty miles forward of Col. Dunbar, and within twelve or fourteen miles of Fort du Quesne. Here he was advised by his officers to proceed with caution, and was earnestly entreated by Col. Washington, his aid, to permit him to precede the army, and guard against surprise. Too haughty and self-confident to receive advice, Braddock, without any knowledge of the condition of the enemy, continued to press towards the fort. About twelve o'clock, July 9th, when within seven miles of the fort, he was suddenly attacked by a body of French and Indians. Although the enemy did not exceed five hundred, yet, after an action of three hours, Braddock, under whom five horses had been killed, was mortally

wounded, and his troops defeated. The loss of the English army was sixty-four out of eighty-five officers, and nearly half the privates.

This unfortunate defeat of Gen. Braddock is to be ascribed to his imprudence and too daring intrepidity. Had he attended to those precautions which were recommended to him, he would not have been thus ambuscaded; or had he wisely retreated from a concealed enemy, and scoured the thicket with his cannon, the melancholy catastrophe might have been avoided. But, obstinately riveted to the spot on which he was first attacked, he vainly continued his attempt to form his men in regular order, although, by this means, a surer prey to the enemy, until, being himself wounded, he could no longer be accessary to the destruction of human life.

A remarkable fact in the history of this affair remains to be told. Gen. Braddock held the *provincial* troops in great contempt. Consequently, he kept the Virginians, and other provincials, who were in the action, in the rear. Yet, although equally exposed with the rest, far from being affected with the fears that disordered the regular troops, they stood firm and unbroken, and, under Colonel Washington, covered the retreat of the regulars, and saved them from total destruction.

The retreat of the army, after Braddock was wounded, was precipitate. No pause was made until the rear division was met. This division, on its junction with the other, was seized with the same spirit of flight with the retreating, and both divisions proceeded to Fort Cumberland, a distance of nearly one hundred and twenty miles from the place of action.

Had the troops, even here, recovered their spirits and returned, success might still have crowned the expedition. At least, the army might have rendered the most important service to the cause, by preventing the devastations and inhuman murders, perpetrated by the French and Indians, during the summer, on the western borders of Virginia and Pennsylvania. But, instead of adopting a course so salutary and important, Col. Dunbar, leaving the sick and wounded at Cumberland, marched with his troops to Philadelphia.

9. The expedition against *Crown Point* was led by Gen. William Johnson, a member of the council of New York; and although it failed as to its main object, yet its results diffused exultation through the American colonies, and dispelled the gloom which followed Braddock's defeat.

The army under Johnson arrived at the south end of Lake George the latter part of August. While here, intelligence was

received that a body of the enemy, two thousand in number, had landed at Southbay, now *Whitehall*, under command of Baron Dieskau, and were marching towards Fort Edward, for the purpose of destroying the provisions and military stores there.

At a council of war, held on the morning of September 8th, it was resolved to detach a party to intercept the French and save the fort. This party consisted of twelve hundred men, commanded by Col. Ephraim Williams, of Deerfield, Massachusetts. Unfortunately, this detachment was surprised by Dieskau, who was lying in ambush for them. After a most signal slaughter, in which Col. Williams, and Hendrick, a renowned Mohawk sachem, and many other officers, fell, the detachment was obliged to retreat.

The firing was heard in the camp of Johnson; and, as it seemed to approach nearer and nearer, it was naturally conjectured that the English troops were repulsed. The best preparations which the time allowed, were made to receive the advancing foe. Dieskau, with his troops, soon appeared, and commenced a spirited attack. They were received, however, with so much intrepidity —the cannon and musketry did so much execution among their ranks—that the enemy retired in great disorder, having experienced a signal defeat. The loss of the French was not less than seven hundred killed, and three hundred wounded: this loss was rendered still more severe to the French by a mortal wound which Dieskau himself received, and in consequence of which he fell into the hands of the English. The loss of the English did not much exceed two hundred.

Few events, of no greater magnitude, leave stronger impressions than resulted from the battle of Lake George. Following, as it did, the discomfiture of Braddock, it served to restore the honor of the British arms, and the tone of the public mind.

At the time it was meditated to send a detachment, under Col. Williams, to intercept Dieskau, the number of men proposed was mentioned to Hendrick, the Mohawk chief, and his opinion asked. He replied, "If they are to fight, they are too few. If they are to be killed, they are too many." The number was accordingly increased. Gen. Johnson proposed also to divide the detachment into three parties. Upon this, Hendrick took three sticks, and, putting them together, said to him, "Put these together, and you cannot break them; take them one by one, and you will break them easily." The hint succeeded, and Hendrick's sticks saved many of the party, and probably the whole army, from destruction.

Among the wounded of the French, as already stated, was the Baron Dieskau. He had received a ball through his leg, and, being unable to follow his retreating army, was found by an English soldier resting upon the stump of a tree, with scarcely an attendant. Dieskau, apprehensive for his safety, was feeling for

his watch, in order to give it to the soldier, when the man, suspecting that he was feeling for a pistol, levelled his gun, and wounded him in the hips. He was carried to the camp, and treated with great kindness. From the camp he was removed to Albany and New York, whence, some time after, he sailed for England, where he died. He was a superior officer, possessed of honorable feelings, and adorned with highly polished manners. One stain, however, attaches to his character. Before his engagement with Col. Williams's corps, he gave orders to his troops neither to give nor take quarter.

10. The expedition against *Niagara* was committed to Gov. Shirley, of Massachusetts, whose force amounted to two thousand five hundred men. But the season was too far advanced before his preparations were completed, to effect any thing of importance. After proceeding to Oswego, on Lake Ontario, the army being poorly supplied with provisions, and the rainy season approaching, the expedition was abandoned, and the troops returned to Albany. Thus ended the campaign of 1755.

11. In the spring of the ensuing year, 1756, Gov. Shirley was succeeded in command by Gen. Abercrombie, until the arrival of the Earl of Loudon, commander-in-chief of all his majesty's forces in America.

The hostilities of the two preceding years had been carried on without any formal proclamation of war; but this year, June 9th, as already stated, war was declared by Great Britain against France, and, soon after, by France against Great Britain, in turn.

The plan of operations for the campaign of '56 embraced the attack of *Niagara* and *Crown Point*, which were still in possession of the French. Both these places were of great importance; the former being the connecting link in the line of fortifications between Canada and Louisiana; and the latter commanding Lake Champlain, and guarding the only passage, at that time, into Canada. But, important as were these posts, the reduction of neither was this year accomplished, nor even attempted, owing, chiefly, to the great delays of those who held the chief command.

Troops were raised for the expedition against Crown Point, amounting to seven thousand, the command of whom was assigned to Maj. Gen. Winslow, of Massachusetts. But his march was delayed by obstacles ascribed to the improvidence of Abercrombie.

After the mortal wound received by Dieskau, at the battle of Lake George, the Marquis de Montcalm, an able and enterprising officer, succeeded to the command of the French forces. In the month of August, this officer, with eight thousand regulars, Canadians and Indians, invested the fort at Oswego, on the south side of Lake Ontario,—one of the most important posts held by the English in America,—and in a few days took it. On the receipt of this intelligence, Lord Loudon, who had arrived at Albany, and entered upon the command, despatched orders to Gen. Winslow, on his march towards Crown Point, not to proceed.

The fall of the fort at Oswego was most unfortunate for the English; and their loss of men made prisoners, and munitions of war, peculiarly severe. By the capture of this post, the enemy obtained the entire command of the lakes Ontario and Erie, and of the whole country of the Five Nations. Sixteen hundred men were made prisoners, and one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon were taken, with fourteen mortars, two sloops of war, and two hundred boats and batteaux.

After this disastrous event, all offensive operations were immediately relinquished, although it was then three months to the time of the usual decampment of the army. Thus, through the inactivity of a man whose leading trait was *indecision*, not one object of the campaign was gained, nor one purpose accomplished, either honorable or important.

12. Notwithstanding the failure of the campaign of this season, the British parliament made great preparations to prosecute the war the succeeding year, 1757. In July, an armament of eleven ships of the line and fifty transports, with more than six thousand troops, arrived at Halifax, destined for the reduction of Louisburg. The colonies had been raising men for an expedition against Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Great was their

mortification and disappointment, when they learned from the orders of Lord Loudon, that these troops were to be employed against Louisburg. Such inconstancy and fluctuation appeared beneath the dignity of the commander-in-chief. But they were obliged to submit; and Lord Loudon proceeded to join the armament at Halifax.

So dilatory were their measures, however, that, before they were ready to sail, Louisburg was reinforced by a fleet of seventeen sail, and with troops to make it nine thousand strong. On the reception of this intelligence, it was deemed inexpedient to proceed, and the expedition was abandoned.

13. While weakness and indecision were marking the counsels of the English, the French continued to urge on their victories. Montcalm, still commander of the French in the north, finding the troops withdrawn from Halifax for the reduction of Louisburg, seized the occasion to make a descent on Fort William Henry, situated on the north shore of Lake George. The garrison of the fort consisted of three thousand men. With a force of nine thousand men, Montcalm laid siege to it. After a gallant defence of six days, the garrison surrendered, thus giving to Montcalm the command of the lake, and of the western frontier.

The spirited and protracted defence of the fort, against such numbers, reflects the highest honor upon its brave commander, Col. Munroe. Six days was the enemy kept at bay, with unabated resolution, in full expectation of assistance from Gen. Webb, who lay at Fort Edward, only fifteen miles distant, with an army of four thousand men.

The character of Gen. Webb continues sullied by his unpardonable indifference to the perilous situation of his brethren in arms at Fort William Henry. It deserves to be known, that Sir William Johnson, after very importunate solicitations, obtained leave of Gen. Webb to march, with as many as would volunteer in the service, to the relief of Munroe.

At the beat of the drums, the provincials, almost to a man, sallied forth, and were soon ready and eager for the march. After being under arms almost all day, what were their feelings when Sir William, returning from head-quarters, informed them that Gen. Webb had forbidden them to march!

The soldiers were inexpressibly mortified and enraged, and their commander did himself no common honor in the tears he shed, as he turned from his troops, and retired to his tent.

The defence of Fort William Henry was so gallant, that Col. Munroe, with his troops, was admitted to an honorable capitulation. The capitulation, however, was most shamefully broken While the troops were marching out at the gate of the fort, the Indians, attached to Montcalm's party, dragged the men from their ranks, and, with all the inhumanity of savage feeling, plundered them of their baggage, and butchered them in cold blood. Out of a New Hampshire corps of two hundred, eighty were missing.

It is said that efforts were made by the French to restrain the barbarians; but the truth of the assertion may well be doubted, when it is considered that Montcalm's force was at least seven thousand French, and yet these barbarians were not restrained.

14. In 1758, most fortunately for the honor of the British arms, and for the salvation of the colonies, a change took place in the ministry of England. The celebrated Pitt, Lord Chatham, now placed at the head of the administration, breathed a new soul into the British councils, and revived the energies of the colonies, weakened and exhausted by a series of ill-contrived and unfortunate expeditions. The tide of success now turned in favor of the English, who continued, with some few exceptions, to achieve one victory after another, until the whole of Canada surrendered to the British arms.

Pitt, upon coming into office, addressed a circular to the colonial governors, in which he assured them of the determination of the ministry to send a large force to America, and called upon them to raise as many troops as the number of inhabitants would allow. The colonies were prompt and liberal in furnishing the requisite supplies. Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Hampshire, unitedly, raised fifteen thousand men, who were ready to take the field in May.

15. Three expeditions were proposed:—the *first* against Louisburg; the *second* against Ticonderoga; the *third* against Fort du Quesne.*

16. On the expedition against *Louisburg*, Admiral

* Pronounced Du-Kane.

Boscawen sailed from Halifax, May 28th, with a fleet of twenty ships of the line, eighteen frigates, and an army of fourteen thousand men, under the command of Brig. Gen. Amherst, next to whom in command was Gen. Wolfe. On the 26th of July, after a vigorous resistance, this fortress was surrendered, and with it five thousand seven hundred and thirty-seven prisoners of war, and one hundred and twenty cannon, besides which the enemy lost five ships of the line and four frigates. At the same time, Isle Royal, St. Johns, with Cape Breton, fell into the hands of the English, who now became masters of the coast from the St. Lawrence to Nova Scotia.

The surrender of this fortress was a more signal loss to France than any which she had sustained since the commencement of the war. It greatly obstructed her communications with Canada, and was powerfully instrumental in hastening the subjugation of that country to the British crown.

17. The expedition against *Ticonderoga* was conducted by Gen. Abercrombie, commander-in-chief in America, Lord Loudon having returned to England. An army of sixteen thousand men, nine thousand of whom were provincials, followed his standard, besides a formidable train of artillery.

Having passed Lake George, the army proceeded with great difficulty towards the fortress. Unfortunately, Gen. Abercrombie trusted to others, who were incompetent to the task, to reconnoitre the ground and intrenchments of the enemy, and, without a knowledge of the strength of the places, or of the proper points of attack, issued his orders to attempt the lines without bringing up a single piece of artillery.

The army advanced to the charge with the greatest intrepidity, and for more than four hours maintained the attack with incredible obstinacy.

After the loss of nearly two thousand in killed and wounded, the troops were summoned away. The retreat was as unhappy as the attack had been precipitate and

ill-advised. Not a doubt can rationally exist, that, had the siege been prosecuted with prudence and vigor, the reduction of the place would have been easily accomplished without so great a waste of human life, as the garrison amounted to but little more than three thousand men.

The passage of Abercrombie across Lake George, on his way with his army to Ticonderoga, was effected by means of one thousand and thirty-five boats. The splendor of the military parade on the occasion was eminently imposing, and deserves to be recorded. A late writer, Dr. Dwight, thus describes it:—

"The morning was remarkably bright and beautiful; and the fleet moved with exact regularity to the sound of fine martial music. The ensigns waved and glittered in the sun-beams, and the anticipation of future triumph shone in every eye. Above, beneath, around, the scenery was that of enchantment. Rarely has the sun, since that luminary was first lighted up in the heavens, dawned on such a complication of beauty and magnificence." How greatly did all the parade which was displayed, and all the anticipation which was indulged, add to the mortification of the defeat which followed!

After his repulse, Gen. Abercrombie retired to his former quarters on Lake George. Here, anxious in any way to repair the mischief and disgrace of defeat, he consented, at the solicitation of Col. Bradstreet, to detach him, with three thousand men, against Fort Frontenac, on the north-west side of the outlet of Lake Ontario. With these troops, mostly provincial, Bradstreet sailed down the Ontario, landed within a mile of the fort, opened his batteries, and, in two days, forced this important fortress to surrender. Nine armed vessels, sixty cannon, sixteen mortars, and a vast quantity of ammunition, &c. &c. fell into his hands.

18. To dispossess the French at *Fort du Quesne*, the bulwark of their dominion over the western regions, was a third expedition contemplated this year. This enterprise was intrusted to Gen. Forbes, who left Philadelphia, in July, but did not arrive at du Quesne till late in November. The force collected for the attack amounted to eight thousand effective men. An attack, however, was needless, the fort having been de-

serted by the garrison the evening before the arrival of the army. On taking quiet possession of the place, Forbes, in honor of Mr. Pitt, called it *Pittsburg*.

Notwithstanding the defeat of Ticonderoga, the campaign closed with honor to the colonies, and to the nation in general. The successes of the year prepared the way for the still greater achievements of the ensuing year.

19. Another event of this year concurred in bringing to pass the fortunate issues of the next. This was a treaty of peace and friendship with the Indian nations inhabiting between the Apalachian mountains, the Alleganies, and the lakes. This treaty was concluded at Easton, sixty miles from Philadelphia.

The managers of the treaty on the part of Great Britain, were the governors of Pennsylvania and New Jersey, Sir William Johnson, four members of the council of Pennsylvania, six members of assembly, and two agents from New Jersey.

The tribes represented on this occasion, and with which the treaty was made, were the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagoes, Cayugas, Senecas, Tuscaroras, Nanticoques, and Conays, the Tuteloes, Chugnuts, Delawares, Unamies, Minisinks, Mohicans, and Wappingers. The whole number of Indians, including women and children, present, amounted to five hundred.

20. The campaign of 1759 had for its object the entire conquest of Canada. For this purpose, it was determined, that three powerful armies should enter Canada by different routes, and attack, at nearly the same time, all the strong holds of the French in that country. These were *Ticonderoga* and *Crown Point*, *Niagara* and *Quebec*.

21. Gen. Amherst, who had succeeded Abercrombie as commander-in-chief, led one division against *Ticonderoga*, which he reached July 22d. This fortress soon surrendered, the principal part of the garrison having retired to Crown Point. Having strengthened Ticonderoga, the army next proceeded against this latter place, and took quiet possession of it, the enemy having fled before their arrival.

The French retired to the Isle aux Noix, situated at the northern extremity of Lake Champlain, where they were strongly encamped, with a force of three thousand five hundred men, and a powerful artillery. Gen. Amherst designed to follow up his successes against them in that quarter; but the want of a suitable naval armament prevented.

22. The second division of the army, commanded by Gen. Prideaux, was destined against *Niagara*, at which place they arrived July 6th, without loss or opposition. The place was immediately invested: on the 24th of the month, a general battle took place, which decided the fate of Niagara, and placed it in the hands of the English.

Four days previous to this battle, that able and distinguished officer, Gen. Prideaux, was killed by the bursting of a cohorn. The command devolved on Sir William Johnson, who successfully put in execution the plans of his lamented predecessor.

23. While the English troops were achieving these important victories in Upper Canada, Gen. Wolfe was prosecuting the most important enterprise of the campaign, viz. the reduction of Quebec. Embarking at Louisburg with eight thousand men, under convoy of Admirals Saunders and Holmes, he landed with his troops, in June, on the island of Orleans, a little below Quebec.

After several attempts to reduce the place, which proved unsuccessful, Wolfe conceived the project of ascending, with his troops, a precipice of from 150 to 200 feet, by which he would reach the plains of Abraham, lying south and west of the city, and thus gain access to the enemy, in a less fortified spot.

This ascent he effected with his army, and ere Montcalm, the French general, was aware of it, the army had formed on the heights of Abraham, and were prepared for battle.

Here, on the morning of the 13th of September, Wolfe met the French army under Montcalm, and, after a severe and bloody contest, in which both these brave commanders fell, victory decided in favor of the English.

A thousand prisoners were taken, and a thousand of the enemy were killed. The loss of the English, in killed and wounded, did not exceed six hundred. Five days after, the city capitulated: the inhabitants were to enjoy their civil and religious rights, and remain neutral during the war. The city was garrisoned under the command of Gen. Murray.

Determined from the first to take the place, impregnable as it was accounted, the measures of Gen. Wolfe were singularly bold, and apparently repugnant to all the maxims of war. His attention was first drawn to Point Levi, on the southern bank of the St. Lawrence, upon which, after taking possession of it, he erected batteries. By means of these, he destroyed many houses; but from this point it was soon apparent that little impression could be made upon the fortifications of the town.

Finding it impracticable thus to accomplish his purpose, Wolfe next decided on more daring measures. For the purpose of drawing Montcalm to a general battle, Wolfe, with his troops, crossed the river Montmorenci, and attacked the enemy in their intrenchments. Owing, however, to the grounding of some of the boats which conveyed the troops, a part of the detachment did not land so soon as the others. The corps that first landed, without waiting to form, rushed forward impetuously towards the enemy's intrenchments. But their courage proved their ruin. A close and well-directed fire from the enemy cut them down in great numbers.

Montcalm's party had now landed, and were drawn up on the beach in order. But it was near night, a thunder-storm was approaching, and the tide was rapidly setting in. Fearing the consequences of delay, Wolfe ordered a retreat across the Montmorenci, and returned to his quarters on the Isle of Orleans. In this rencounter, his loss amounted to near six hundred of the flower of his army.

The difficulties of effecting the conquest of Quebec now pressed upon Wolfe with all their force. But he knew the importance of taking this strongest hold—he knew the expectations of his countrymen—he well knew that no military conduct could shine that was not gilded with success.

Disappointed thus far, and worn down with fatigue and watching, General Wolfe fell violently sick. Scarcely had he recovered, before he proceeded to put in execution a plan which had been matured on his sick bed. This was to proceed up the river, gain the heights of Abraham, and draw Montcalm to a general engagement.

Accordingly, the troops were transported up the river about nine miles. On the 12th of Sept., one hour after midnight, Wolfe

and his troops left the ships, and in boats silently dropped down the current, intending to land a league above Cape Diamond, and there ascend the bank leading to the station he wished to gain. Owing, however, to the rapidity of the river, they fell below the intended place, and landed a mile, or a mile and a half, above the city.

The operation was a critical one, as they had to navigate, in silence, down a rapid stream, and to find a right place for landing, which, amidst surrounding darkness, might be easily mistaken. Besides this, the shore was shelving, and the bank so steep and lofty, as scarcely to be ascended, even without opposition from an enemy.

About an hour before day, the army began to ascend the precipice, the distance of one hundred and fifty or two hundred feet, almost perpendicular ascent, above which spread the plains of Abraham. By day-light, Sept. 13th, this almost incredible enterprise had been effected—the desired station was attained, the army was formed, and ready to meet the enemy.

To Montcalm, the intelligence that the English were occupying the heights of Abraham was most surprising. The impossibility of ascending the precipice he considered certain, and therefore had taken no measures to fortify its line. But no sooner was he informed of the position of the English army, than, perceiving a battle no longer to be avoided, he prepared to fight. Between nine and ten o'clock, the two armies, about equal in numbers, met face to face.

The battle now commenced. Inattentive to the fire of a body of Canadians and Indians, one thousand five hundred of whom Montcalm had stationed in the cornfields and bushes, Wolfe directed his troops to reserve their fire for the main body of the French, now rapidly advancing. On their approach within forty yards, the English opened their fire, and the destruction became immense.

The French fought bravely, but their ranks became disordered, and, notwithstanding the repeated efforts of their officers to form them, and to renew the attack, they were so successfully pushed by the British bayonet, and hewn down by the Highland broad-sword, that their discomfiture was complete.

During the action, Montcalm was on the French left, and Wolfe on the English right, and here they both fell in the critical moment that decided the victory. Early in the battle, Wolfe received a ball in his wrist; but, binding his handkerchief around it, he continued to encourage his men. Shortly after, another ball penetrated his groin; but this wound, although much more severe, he concealed, and continued to urge on the contest, till a third bullet pierced his breast. He was now obliged, though reluctantly, to be carried to the rear of the line.

Gen. Monckton succeeded to the command, but was immedi-

ately wounded, and conveyed away. In this critical state of the action, the command devolved upon Gen. Townshend. Gen. Montcalm, fighting in front of his battalion, received a mortal wound about the same time, and Gen. Jennezergus, his second in command, fell near his side.

Wolfe died in the field, before the battle was ended; but he lived long enough to know that the victory was his. While leaning on the shoulder of a lieutenant, who kneeled to support him, he was seized with the agonies of death: at this moment was heard the distant sound, "They fly—they fly." The hero raised his drooping head, and eagerly asked, "Who fly?" Being told that it was the French—"Then," he replied, "I die happy," and expired.

"This death," says Professor Silliman, "has furnished a grand and pathetic subject for the painter, the poet and the historian, and, undoubtedly, considered as a specimen of *mere* military glory, it is one of the most sublime that the annals of war afford."

Montcalm was every way worthy of being the competitor of Wolfe. In talents, in military skill, in personal courage, he was not his inferior. Nor was his death much less sublime. He lived to be carried to the city, where his last moments were employed in writing, with his own hand, a letter to the English general, recommending the French prisoners to his care and humanity. When informed that his wound was mortal, he replied, "I shall not then live to see the surrender of Quebec."

24. The capture of Quebec, which soon followed, important as it was, did not immediately terminate the war. The French in Canada had still a powerful army, and some naval force above the city.

25. In the ensuing spring, 1760, Monsieur Levi approached Quebec, from Montreal, assisted by six frigates, for the purpose of recovering it from the English. Gen. Murray, who commanded the English garrison, marched to meet him, with only three thousand men; and, on the 28th of April, after a bloody battle, fought at Sillsery, three miles above the city, the English army was defeated, with the loss of one thousand men, the French having lost more than double that number.

The English retreated to Quebec, to which the French now laid siege. About the middle of May, an English squadron arrived with reinforcements, soon after which the French fleet was taken and destroyed, and the siege was raised.

26. The attention of the English commander-in-chief, Gen. Amherst, was now directed to the reduction of Montreal, the last fortress of consequence in the possession of the French. To effect this, he detached Col. Haviland, with a well-disciplined army, to proceed to Lake George, Crown Point, and Lake Champlain; Gen. Murray was ordered from Quebec, with such forces as could be spared from the garrison, while Gen. Amherst himself proceeded, with ten thousand men, by Lake Ontario, down the river St. Lawrence.

Generals Amherst and Murray arrived at Montreal the same day, Sept. 6th, and were joined by Haviland on the day succeeding. While preparing to lay siege to the place, the commander of Montreal, M. de Vaudreuil, perceiving that resistance would be ineffectual, demanded a capitulation. On the 8th, Montreal, Detroit, Michilimackinac, and all the other places within the government of Canada, were surrendered to his Britannic majesty.

27. Thus ended a war which, from the first hostilities, had continued six years, and during which much distress had been experienced, and many thousand valuable lives lost. Great and universal was the joy that spread through the colonies, at the successful termination of a contest so long and severe, and public thanksgivings were generally appointed, to ascribe due honor to HIM who had preserved to the colonies their existence and liberties.

28. While the troops were employed in the conquest of Canada, the colonies of Virginia and South Carolina suffered invasion and outrage from the Cherokees, a powerful tribe of savages on the west. But, in 1761, they were signally defeated by Col. Grant, and compelled to sue for peace.

Intelligence being communicated to Gen. Amherst of the danger of these colonies, he despatched Gen. Montgomery, with one thousand two hundred men, for their protection and relief.

Being joined by the forces of the province of Carolina on his arrival, he immediately proceeded into the country of the Chero-

kees, plundering and destroying their villages and magazines of corn. In revenge, the savages besieged Fort Loudon, on the confines of Virginia, which was obliged, by reason of famine, to capitulate. The capitulation was, however, broken, and the troops, while on their march to Virginia, were assaulted, numbers of them killed, and the rest taken captive.

The next year, 1761, Gen. Montgomery being obliged to return, Col. Grant was sent to continue the war. With an army of near two thousand six hundred men, he began his march towards the enemy's country. On the fourth day, the army fell in with a body of savages, and, after a strongly-contested battle, put them to flight. Following up this victory, Col. Grant proceeded to destroy their magazines, burn their cornfields, and consume their settlements, until, having effectually routed them, he returned with his troops. Soon after this, the Cherokee chiefs came in, and a peace was concluded.

29. The conquest of Canada having been achieved in 1763, a definitive treaty, the preliminaries of which had been settled the year before, was signed at Paris, and soon after ratified by the kings of England and France; by which all Nova Scotia, Canada, the isle of Cape Breton, and all other islands in the gulf and river St. Lawrence, were ceded to the British crown.

NOTES.

30. Manners of the Colonists. The change in respect to manners in the colonies, during this period, consisted chiefly in a gradual wearing away of national distinctions and peculiarities, and a tendency to a still greater unity and assimilation of character. The rapid increase of wealth, and the frequency of intercourse with Europe, began to introduce among the colonies the tastes, and fashions, and luxuries, of European countries. But the introduction of them produced little enervation of character among the people of America. Such an effect was counteracted by the bloody but successful war with the French and Indians, and the boundless prosperity which seemed to open to the country, and call forth its energies. Instead, therefore, of a growing weakness in the colonies, we perceive a more vigorous

spirit of commercial enterprise pervading the country; a consciousness of political importance becoming confirmed; and a deep and ardent love of civil liberty breathing over the land.

31. RELIGION. The only religious sect introduced into America, during this period, was that of the *Shakers*, or *Shaking Quakers*, who arrived from England in 1774, and settled at Niskayuna, near Albany.

Although the spirit of religious intolerance had disappeared from the colonies, and the Puritanical severity of the north had become much softened, yet, until the commencement of the French and Indian war, the religious character of the colonies had remained essentially the same. But during this war, *infidelity* was extensively introduced into the army, by means of the foreign English officers and soldiers who were sent into the country. From the army it spread itself into society, and produced a considerable relaxation of morals, and a looser adherence to correct principle.

32. TRADE AND COMMERCE. During this period, trade and commerce made great advances; the annual amount of imports from Great Britain was about two and a half millions of pounds sterling, from 1756 to 1771; from 1771 to 1773, it was three millions and a half annually, on an average. The annual amount of exports of the colonies to Great Britain and elsewhere, was about four million pounds sterling, at the close of this period. The articles of export, and the nature of the trade of the colonies, were essentially the same as stated in the Notes to Period III.

In 1769, the number of ships employed by Great Britain and the colonies, in the trade with the colonies, was one thousand and seventy-eight, manned by twenty-eight thousand nine hundred and ten seamen.

The whale and other fisheries in the colonies had become of great importance. In 1775, there were employed in the fishery generally, and in carrying the fish to market from New England, one thousand four hundred and fifty vessels of all descriptions, of one hundred thousand tons burthen, and eleven thousand fishermen and seamen.

33. AGRICULTURE. During this period, a gradual progress was made in agriculture; but it does not need any specific notice.

34. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. Great Britain still continued to oppose the progress of arts and manufactures in the colonies, and, therefore, there was but a moderate advance of these interests during this period.

35. POPULATION. At the close of this period, the white and black population of the colonies did not vary greatly from three millions.

36. EDUCATION. In the year 1769, the college at Hanover, New Hampshire, was founded, and called *Dartmouth College*, in honor of the Earl of Dartmouth, who was one of its principal benefactors.

In 1770, the university in Rhode Island, called *Brown University*, was established at Providence. It was incorporated in 1764, and first located at Warren. At this place the first commencement was held, 1769.

REFLECTIONS.

37. The preceding short period of our history presents several interesting subjects of reflection. The American colonies became the theatre of a bloody conflict, attended by all the appalling features of savage war. Although feebly supported by England, and embarrassed by the want of political union, they surmounted every obstacle, and compelled the French, their enemies, to depart from their shores forever.

But no sooner was this conflict ended, than they began to feel, with added weight, the hand of British oppression. Not humbled, however, by injustice, nor crushed by severities, they vigorously put forth their strength in commerce, trade, and agriculture. They spread innumerable sails upon the ocean, they converted forests into meadows and wheat-fields; established seminaries of learning; founded cities; and built churches to God.

Nay, more—we see that those very steps which were taken by the mother country to cripple the American colonies, were so ordered, as to add to their strength. By leaving them to bear the war of 1756 almost alone, she showed them that they could not expect defence from her; she taught them the necessity of relying upon their own energies; gave them an opportunity to learn the art of war, and to ascertain their own strength.

The long line of British acts, designed to crush the colonies, and to keep them in humble subjection, passed, as they were, in wilful ignorance of the feelings and power of America, awakened

the spirit of the revolution, and laid the foundation of a great nation.

What a lesson may tyranny gather from this! And how thankful should *we* be, that a just Providence is above, who regards the affairs of men—who turns aside the trampling heel of oppression, and causes the blood wrung out by tyranny to cry from the ground, and to call forth the spirit of liberty!

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD V.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE WAR OF THE REVOLUTION

Extending from the Commencement of Hostilities by Great Britain, against the American Colonies, in the Battle of Lexington, 1775, to the Disbanding of the American Army, at West Point, 1783.

Sec. 1. On the 19th of April, 1775, was shed at Lexington, Massachusetts, the first blood in the war of the revolution; a war which terminated in the separation of the American colonies from Great Britain, and in their change, from this humble character and condition, to that of free and independent states.

2. The *causes* which led the colonies to take up arms against the mother country, deserve a distinct recital in this portion of our history, as they will clearly show the justice, the wisdom, and the necessity, of those acts of resistance, to which, at that trying period, resort was had.

"The independence of America," it has been observed, "was found by those who sought it not." When the fathers of this country left Great Britain, they had no intention of establishing a government independent of that of England. On the contrary, they came out as colonists, and expected still to acknowledge allegiance to the mother country. For many years, when they spoke, or wrote, or thought, of England, it was under the filial and affectionate idea of "*home*." And even

at the commencement of the controversy with Great Britain," if we credit those who lived at that time, "there existed no *desire*, nor *intention*, of becoming independent."

For these feelings of affection for the mother country, the colonies deserve the highest encomium. Causes existed which might have justified a less degree of attachment, and were calculated to produce it. These were the oppression and losses which they endured; the shackles imposed upon them; the restraints upon their commerce; the parsimony with which aid was administered by the mother country; the maleadministration; the peculation and arbitrary conduct of the royal governors;—these things were sufficient, and more than sufficient, to stifle every feeling of affection, and shake the last remains of their allegiance.

Yet through all this oppressive subordination; through the calamities of war; through the attempt to wrest from them their charters, and their dearest rights,—they could say, and *did* say, "England, with all thy faults, I love thee still."

Nor is it probable that these friendly dispositions of the colonies would at this time have been withdrawn, had not Great Britain interrupted them by a grievous change of policy towards the inhabitants, touching the subject of revenue and taxation.

3. Before the peace of '63, the subject of taxation had been wisely let alone. The colonies had been permitted to tax themselves, without the interference of the parliament. But from and after this period, the ancient system was set aside, and a different and oppressive policy adopted. The first act, the avowed purpose of which was a revenue from the colonies, passed the parliament, September 29th, 1764, the preamble to which began thus—"Whereas it is *just* and necessary that a *revenue* be raised in America, for defraying the expenses of defending, protecting, and securing the same, we the commons," &c. The act then proceeds to lay a duty on "clayed sugar, indigo, coffee, &c. &c., being the produce of a colony not under the dominion of his majesty."

4. This act the colonies could not approve. They could not approve of it, because it recognized the existence of a right to tax them—a right not founded in justice, and which, since their existence, nearly one hun-

dred and fifty years, had, until now, seldom been named. But the colonies could submit to it, although unpleasant and unjust; nor would this act alone have led to permanent disaffection, had it not been followed by other acts, still more unjust and oppressive.

On the subject of the right of the British parliament to tax the colonies, it was asserted, in the mother country, "to be essential to the unity, and of course to the prosperity, of the empire, that the British parliament should have a right of taxation over every part of the royal dominions." In the colonies, it was contended, "that *taxation* and *representation* were inseparable, and that they could not be safe, if their property might be taken from them without their consent." This claim of the right of taxation on the one side, and the denial of it on the other, was *the very hinge on which the revolution turned.*

5. In accordance with the policy to be observed towards America, the next year, 1765, the famous *stamp act* passed both houses of parliament. This ordained that instruments of writing, such as deeds, bonds, notes, &c., among the colonies, should be null and void, unless executed on *stamped* paper, for which a duty should be paid to the crown.

When this bill was brought in, the ministers, and particularly Charles Townshend, exclaimed:—

"These Americans, our own children, planted by our care, nourished by our indulgence, protected by our arms, until they are grown to a good degree of strength and opulence; will they now turn their backs upon us, and grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load which overwhelms us?"

Col. Barre caught the words, and, with a vehemence becoming a soldier, rose and said:—

"*Planted by your care!* No! your oppression planted them in America: they fled from your tyranny into a then uncultivated land, where they were exposed to almost all the hardships to which human nature is liable, and, among others, to the savage cruelty of the enemy of the country, a people the most subtle, and, I take upon me to say, the most truly terrible of any people that ever inhabited any part of God's earth; and yet, actuated by principles of true English liberty, they met all these hardships with pleasure, compared with those they suffered in their own country, from the hands of those that should have been their friends.

"*They nourished by your indulgence!* They grew by your neglect: as soon as you began to care about them, that care was ex-

ercised in sending persons to rule over them in one department and another, who were, perhaps, the deputies of the deputies of some members of this house, sent to spy out their liberty, to misrepresent their actions, and to prey upon them; men whose behavior, on many occasions, has caused the blood of these sons of liberty to recoil within them; men promoted to the highest seats of justice, some of whom, to my knowledge, were glad, by going to foreign countries, to escape the vengeance of the laws in their own.

"*They protected by your arms!* They have nobly taken up arms in your defence, have exerted their valor, amidst their constant and laborious industry, for the defence of a country whose frontiers while drenched in blood, its interior parts have yielded for your enlargement the little savings of their frugality and the fruits of their toils. And *believe me, remember*, I this day told you so, that the same spirit which actuated that people at first, will continue with them still."

The night after this act passed, Doctor Franklin, who was then in London, wrote to Charles Thompson, afterwards secretary of the continental congress, "*The sun of liberty is set; the Americans must light the lamps of industry and economy.*" To which Mr. Thompson answered, "Be assured we shall light *torches quite of another sort*"—thus predicting the convulsions which were about to follow.

6. On the arrival of the news of the stamp act in America, a general indignation spread through the country, and resolutions were passed against the act, by most of the colonial assemblies.

The assembly of Virginia was the first public body that met, after the news of the act reached America. Towards the close of the session, five resolutions were introduced into the house of burgesses, by Patrick Henry, a young man highly distinguished for his moral courage and bold and manly eloquence. The first four of these resolutions asserted the various rights and privileges claimed by the colonists, and the fifth denied, in no doubtful terms, the right of parliament to tax America.

The debate on these resolutions was animated, and even violent. Nothing like them had ever transpired in America. They evinced a settled purpose of resistance, and conveyed to the ministry of Great Britain a lesson which, had they read with unprejudiced minds, might have saved them the fruitless struggle of a seven years' war. There were those, in the house of burgesses, who strongly opposed the resolutions; but the bold and powerful eloquence of Henry bore them down, and carried the resolutions, though by a majority of only one. In the heat of the debate, he boldly *asserted*, that the king had acted the part of a

tyrant; and alluding to the fate of other tyrants, he exclaimed, "Cæsar had his *Brutus*, Charles I. his *Cromwell*, and George III."—here pausing a moment till the cry of "Treason, treason," resounding from several parts of the house, had ended—he added —"may profit by *their example;* if this be treason, make the most of it."

The next day, in the absence of Mr. Henry, the fifth resolution was rescinded; but that and the others had already gone forth to the world: by the friends of freedom they were received with enthusiasm, and served to raise still higher the justly indignant feelings of a people whose rights were disregarded.

7. In June, Massachusetts recommended the meeting of a colonial congress, to consult for the general safety. The recommendation being well received by most of the colonies, in October, twenty-eight members assembled in New York, where they remonstrated against the stamp act, and petitioned its repeal. At the same time, they drew up a declaration of rights, in which taxation and representation were declared to be inseparable.

This patriotic movement, on the part of the colony of Massachusetts, was made prior to any intelligence of the proceedings of Virginia, and was in accordance with the spirit of liberty which early manifested itself in that province.

Three commissioners were appointed by Massachusetts to attend the proposed congress, and a circular was addressed to each of the colonies, to appoint commissioners, for the same purpose. To this proposal, eight colonies acceded, viz. Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and South Carolina—commissioners from each of which met those from Massachusetts at New York, on the first Tuesday of October, 1765. This was the first general meeting of the colonies. Timothy Ruggles, a commissioner from Massachusetts, was chosen president.

In their declaration, they acknowledged their allegiance to his majesty, and their willingness to render due honor to the rightful authority of parliament; but they claimed that they had *interests, rights,* and *liberties,* as the natural born subjects of his majesty; and that, as they could not be represented in parliament, that body had no right to impose taxes on them, without their consent. They declared the stamp act, and other acts of parliament, to have a manifest tendency to subvert the rights and liberties of the colonists.

This congress adjourned on the 25th of October; and their proceedings were approved by all the members, except Mr. Ruggles of Massachusetts, and Mr. Ogden of New Jersey, both of whom

left New York without signing the address and petitions. The commissioners from South Carolina and Connecticut were limited by their instructions to make report to their respective legislatures; and the committee of New York, who had been admitted as members, had no authority to apply to the king or parliament. The address and petition were, therefore, signed by commissioners from six of the colonies only. The proceedings of the congress were, however, afterwards sanctioned not only by the assemblies of South Carolina, Connecticut, and New York, but by those of the colonies not therein represented.

8. The stamp act came into operation on the first day of November. But on that day, not a single sheet of all the bales of stamps, which had been sent from England, could have been found in the colonies of New England, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and the two Carolinas. They had either been committed to the flames, had been reshipped to England, or were safely guarded by the opposition, into whose hands they had fallen. A general suspension, or, rather, a total cessation of all business, which required stamped paper, was the consequence. The printers of newspapers, only, continued their occupation; alleging for excuse, that if they had done otherwise, the people would have given them such an admonition as they little coveted. None would receive the gazettes coming from Canada, as they were printed on stamped paper. The courts of justice were shut; even marriages were no longer celebrated; and, in a word, an absolute stagnation in all the relations of social life was established.

It would scarcely be possible, by means of language, to convey an adequate idea of the strong feelings of opposition to this most odious act, which pervaded the friends of liberty in America. As might be expected, these feelings were manifested in various riotous proceedings, which scarcely admit of a full justification.

As early as the middle of August, on the morning of one day, there were discovered two effigies hanging on the branch of an old elm, in the southern part of Boston, one of which was designed to represent a stamp officer—the other a jack-boot, out of which rose a horned head, which appeared to look around.

The novelty of the spectacle soon attracted a multitude to the spot, which continued to increase all day. Towards evening,

the effigies were taken down, placed on a bier, and carried in funeral procession through several streets—a host following, and shouting, "Liberty and property forever!—no stamps!" At length, arriving in front of a house, owned by one Oliver, which they supposed was intended for a stamp office, they demolished it to its very foundations.

From this, they proceeded to his dwelling, and, finding Oliver had fled, they destroyed his fences, broke open the doors of his dwelling, and greatly injured his furniture. On the following day, apprehensive of a second visit from this lawless multitude, Oliver gave public notice, that he had forwarded to England his resignation as a stamp officer. This becoming known by the populace, which had assembled to renew the last night's assault, they gave three cheers to Oliver, and departed without doing further damage.

The opposition of the friends of liberty in other places, was manifested by proceedings of a similar kind.

9. About this time, associations were formed in all the colonies, under the title of *Sons of Liberty*, the object of which was, by every practicable means, to oppose the unjust and arbitrary measures of the British government. Added to this, societies were instituted, including females as well as males, the members of which resolved to forego all the luxuries of life, rather than be indebted to the commerce of England.

These societies denied themselves the use of all foreign articles of clothing: carding, spinning and weaving became the daily employment of women of fashion: sheep were forbidden to be used as food, lest there should not be found a sufficient supply of wool; and to be dressed in a suit of home-spun was to possess the surest means of popular distinction. And so true were these societies to their mutual compact, that the British merchants and manufacturers soon began to feel the necessity of uniting with the colonies in petitioning parliament for a repeal of the obnoxious law. Artificers and manufacturers in England were left without employment, and thrown upon the charities of the public; for, even at that early day, this class of people were in a great measure dependent on the colonial consumption for their support. The warehouses of the merchants were, for the same reason, filled with unsalable goods; and the table of the minister was soon loaded with petitions and remonstrances from all the large towns in the kingdom.

10. Fortunately for the interests both of the colonies and of Great Britain, a change took place, about this

time, in the administration of England, by which several of the friends of America came into power. The Marquis of Rockingham was appointed first lord of the treasury, in the room of Lord Grenville, and the Duke of Grafton and Gen. Conway secretaries of state. To this new ministry, it was obvious, that measures must be taken either to repeal the odious statute, or to make America submit by force of arms. The former being deemed the wiser course, a motion was made in parliament to that effect. The debate on the question of repeal was long and angry. It was, however, at length carried; but only by accompanying the repealing act by one called the *declaratory* act, the language of which was, that parliament have, and of right ought to have, *power to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever.*

On the meeting of parliament, Jan. 7th, 1766, his majesty, in his speech, spoke of the above opposition of the colonies to the stamp act in terms of severe reprehension. On the usual motion for an address to the king, Mr. Pitt, the invariable friend of the colonies, delivered his famous speech on American liberty, in which he declared it to be his opinion that the kingdom had no right to tax the colonies; that he rejoiced that they had resisted, and he hoped that they would resist to the last drop of their blood.

On the 22d of February, General Conway introduced a motion to repeal this act. The debate lasted until three o'clock in the morning; and never was there a debate which excited more warmth of interest or more vehemence of opposition. The lobbies of the house were crowded with the manufacturers and traders of the kingdom, whose anxious countenances plainly showed that their fates hung upon the issue. A division at length being called for, two hundred and seventy-five rose in support of the motion, and one hundred and sixty-seven against it.

On learning this vote, the transports of the people were ungovernable. Impressed with the conviction that they owed their deliverance to Mr. Pitt, their gratitude knew no bounds: when he appeared at the door, in the language of Burke, "they jumped upon him, like children on a long absent father. They clung to him as captives about their redeemer. All *England* joined in his applause." In the house of peers, the opposition to the motion was still more obstinate. Some of the dukes, and the whole *bench of bishops*, were for forcing the Americans to submit, with *fire* and *sword*. Opposition, however, was, at length, wearied

out; and the motion to repeal was carried by a majority of thirty-four, a compromise having been made by introducing the above *declaratory act.*

11. The satisfaction of the colonies, on the repeal of the stamp act, was sincere and universal. Elevated with the idea of having removed an odious and oppressive burden, and believing, notwithstanding the declaratory act of parliament, that the right of taxing the colonies was at length surrendered, better feelings were indulged; commercial intercourse was revived, and larger importations of goods were made than ever.

On the meeting of the house of representatives of Massachusetts, a vote of gratitude to the king, and of thanks to Mr. Pitt, the Duke of Grafton, and others, was passed by that body. By the house of burgesses in Virginia, it was resolved to erect a statue in honor of the king, and an obelisk in honor of all those, whether of the house of peers or of the commons, who had distinguished themselves in favor of the rights of the colonies.

12. In July, 1766, the administration of the Marquis of Rockingham was dissolved, and a new one formed, under the direction of Mr. Pitt, at this time created Earl of Chatham. Unfortunately, it was composed of men of different political principles, and attached to different parties. Among the members of the new cabinet, hostile to America, was Charles Townshend, chancellor of the exchequer. Influenced by Lord Grenville, this latter minister, in the year 1767, introduced into parliament a second plan for taxing America, viz. by imposing duties on glass, paper, pasteboard, painters' colors, and *tea.*

13. During the discussion of this bill, Mr. Pitt was confined by indisposition, and hence unable to raise his voice against it. Without much opposition, it passed both houses, and, on the 29th of June, received the royal assent. At the same time were passed two other acts; —the one establishing a new board of custom-house officers in America; and the other restraining the legislature of the province of New York from *passing any*

act whatever, until they should furnish the king's troops with several required articles.

14. These three acts reached America at the same time, and again excited universal alarm. The first and second were particularly odious. The new duties, it was perceived, were only a new mode of drawing money from the colonies; and the same strong opposition to the measure was exhibited, which had prevailed against the stamp act. Several of the colonies, through their colonial assemblies, expressed their just abhorrence of these enactments, and their determination never to submit to them.

Soon after the establishment of the new board of custom-house officers, at Boston, under the above act, a fit occasion presented itself, for an expression of the public indignation. This was the arrival at that port, in May, 1768, of the sloop Liberty, belonging to Mr. Hancock, and laden with wines from Madeira.

During the night, most of her cargo was unladen, and put into stores; on the following day, the sloop was entered at the custom-house, with a few pipes only. A discovery being made of these facts, by the custom-house officers, the vessel was seized, and by their order removed alongside of the Romney, a ship of war, then in harbor. The conduct of the custom-house officers, in this transaction, roused the indignant feelings of the Bostonians, who unwarrantably attacked the houses of the officers, and even assaulted their persons. No prosecutions, however, could be sustained, from the excited state of public feeling. Finding themselves no longer safe in the town, the officers prudently sought protection on board the Romney, and subsequently retired to Castle William.

15. The public excitement was soon after increased by the arrival in the harbor of two regiments of troops, under the command of Colonel Dalrymple. These were designed to assist the civil magistrates in the preservation of peace, and the custom-house officers in the execution of their functions.

On the day after its arrival, the fleet was brought to anchor near Castle William. Having taken a station which commanded the town, the troops, under cover of the cannon of the ships, landed without molestation, and, to the number of upwards of 700 men, marched, with muskets charged, bayonets fixed, martial music, and the usual military parade, on to the common. In the

evening, the selectmen of Boston were required to quarter the two regiments in the town; but they absolutely refused. A temporary shelter, however, in Fanueil Hall, was permitted to one regiment, that was without its camp equipage. The next day, the state house, by order of the governor, was opened for the reception of the soldiers; and after the quarters were settled, two field pieces, with the main guard, were stationed just in its front. Every thing was calculated to excite the indignation of the inhabitants. The lower floor of the state house, which had been used by gentlemen and merchants as an exchange, the representatives' chamber, the court house, Fanueil Hall—places with which were intimately associated ideas of justice and freedom, as well as of convenience and utility—were now filled with regular soldiers. Guards were placed at the doors of the state house, through which the council must pass, in going to their own chamber. The common was covered with tents. Soldiers were constantly marching and countermarching to relieve the guards. The sentinels challenged the inhabitants as they passed. The Lord's day was profaned, and the devotion of the sanctuary disturbed by the sound of drums and other military music. There was every appearance of a garrisoned town.

16. In Feb., 1769, both houses of parliament went a step beyond all that had preceded, in an address to the king, requesting him to give orders to the governor of Massachusetts—the spirited conduct of which province was particularly obnoxious to the ministry—to take notice of such as might be guilty of treason, that they might be sent to *England* and *tried there.*

A measure more odious to the people of America, or more hostile to the British constitution, could not be named, than for a man to be torn from his country, to be tried by a jury of strangers.

The house of burgesses of Virginia met soon after the official accounts of this address were received, and, in a few days, passed several spirited resolutions, expressing "their exclusive right to tax their constituents, and denying the right of his majesty to remove an offender out of the country for trial." The next day, the royal governor of that colony sent for the house of burgesses, and addressed them laconically as follows:—"Mr. Speaker, and gentlemen of the house of burgesses, I have heard of your resolves, and augur ill of their effects. You have made it my duty to dissolve you, and you are accordingly dissolved!" The assembly of North Carolina passed similar resolutions, and were dissolved by their governor, in a similar manner.

In May following, the assembly of Massachusetts convened, but refused to transact any business while the state house was surrounded by an armed force. This force, however, the governor would not remove, but adjourned the assembly to Cambridge. At this place, the assembly passed resolutions expressing their belief, that the maintenance of a standing army in the colony, in time of peace, was an infringement of the natural rights of the people. They refused to make any of the appropriations of money desired by the governor, in consequence of which he prorogued them. In August, the governor (Bernard) was recalled, and the government devolved upon Lieutenant-Governor Hutchinson.

17. During the session of parliament in 1770, the Duke of Grafton, first lord of the treasury, resigned, and was succeeded in that office by the afterwards celebrated Lord North. In March, this latter gentleman introduced a bill, abolishing all duties, imposed by the act of 1767, on all the articles, except *tea*. This partial suspension of the duties served to soften the feelings of the Americans; but the exception in relation to tea, it was quite apparent, was designed as a salvo to the national honor, and an evidence, which the British ministry were unwilling to relinquish, of the right of parliament to tax the colonies.

18. While affairs were thus situated, an event occurred, which produced great excitement in America, particularly in Massachusetts. This was an affray, on the evening of the 5th of March, 1770, between several of the citizens of Boston, and a number of British soldiers, stationed at the custom-house. Several of the inhabitants were killed, and others severely wounded.

The quarrel commenced on the 2d of March, at Gray's rope walk, between a soldier and a man employed at the rope walk. The provocation was given by the citizen, and a scuffle ensued, in which the soldier was beaten. On the 5th of the month, the soldiers, while under arms, were pressed upon and insulted, and dared to fire. One of them, who had received a blow, fired at the aggressor; and a single discharge from six others succeeded. Three of the citizens were killed, and five dangerously wounded. The town was instantly thrown into the greatest commotion, the bells were rung, and the general cry was, "To arms." In a short time, several thousands of the citizens had

assembled, and a dreadful scene of blood must have ensued, but for the promise of Gov. Hutchinson, that the affair should be settled to their satisfaction in the morning. Capt. Preston, who commanded the soldiers, was committed with them to prison. Upon their trial, the captain and six soldiers were acquitted; two were convicted of manslaughter. For several subsequent years, the evening of the day on which this outrage was committed was commemorated by the citizens of Boston, and the event gave occasion to addresses the most warm and patriotic, which served to waken up and increase the spirit of the revolution.

19. During the summer of 1772, another event occurred, which presented a fresh obstacle to a reconciliation between America and the mother country. This was the destruction, by the people of Rhode Island, of a British armed schooner, called *Gaspee*, which had been stationed in that colony to assist the board of custom in the execution of the revenue and trade laws.

The destruction of this vessel grew out of an odious requisition of her commander, upon the masters of packets, navigating the bay, to lower their colors, on passing the schooner.

On the 9th of June, as the Providence packet was sailing into the harbor of Newport, her captain was ordered to lower his colors. Upon his refusal, a shot was fired at him from the schooner, which immediately made sail in chase. By a dexterous management, on the part of the master of the packet, he led the schooner on a shoal, where she grounded, and remained fast. At night, it was determined by a number of fishermen, and others, headed by several respectable merchants of Providence, to make themselves masters of her, and then set her on fire. When the knowledge of this event came to the governor, a reward of *five hundred pounds* was offered, by proclamation, for the discovery of the offenders, and the royal pardon to those who would confess their guilt. Commissioners were appointed also to investigate the offence, and bring the perpetrators to justice. But after remaining some time in session, they reported that they could obtain no *evidence*, and thus the affair terminated.

20. In 1773, an important measure was adopted by most of the colonies, viz. the appointment of *committees of correspondence and inquiry*, in various parts of their respective territories, by means of which a confidential and invaluable interchange of opinions was kept up between the colonies, and great unity of sentiment was thereby promoted.

This measure had its origin in Massachusetts, in which town meetings were called to express their views of the oppressive acts of the British parliament, and especially of an act by which a salary was voted to the royal governor of Massachusetts by parliament, and the people of that colony required to pay it. In these meetings, the town of Boston took the lead. A committee was appointed to address the several towns in the colony, and to urge upon them the importance of an unanimous expression of their feelings, with regard to the conduct of the British ministry.

The proceedings of the assembly, and of the towns in Massachusetts, were communicated to the house of burgesses in Virginia, in March, 1773, upon which that body passed a resolution appointing a committee of correspondence and inquiry, whose business it was to obtain the most early and authentic intelligence of the proceedings of the British government in relation to the colonies, and to maintain a correspondence with the other colonies touching all affairs of mutual interest.

Upon the recommendation of Virginia, similar committees of correspondence and inquiry were appointed by the different colonial assemblies, and a confidential interchange of opinions was thus kept up between the colonies.

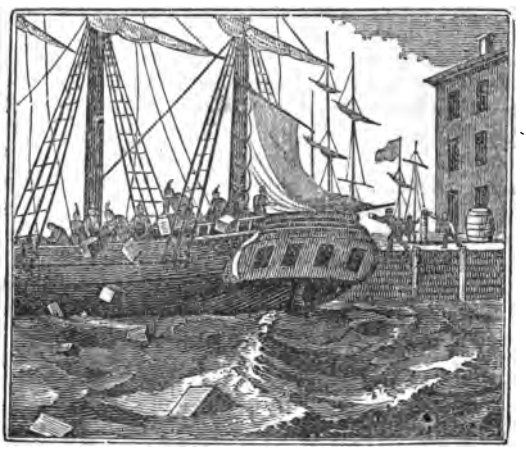
21. During these transactions in America, a plan was devised by the British ministry to introduce *tea* into the colonies. For some time little of that article had been imported into the country, from a determination of the people not to submit to the payment of the duty upon it. In consequence of this, the teas of the East India company had greatly accumulated in their warehouses. To enable them to export their teas to America, the British minister introduced a bill into parliament, allowing the company to export their teas into America, with a drawback of all the duties paid in England. As this would make the tea cheaper in America than in Great Britain, it was presumed that the Americans would pay the small duty upon it, which was only three pence. In this, however, the parliament mistook. Not a single penny, by way of duty, was paid upon it, nor a single pound of it consumed.

On the passage of this bill, the company made a shipment of large quantities of tea to Charleston, Philadelphia, New York, and Boston. Before its arrival, the resolution had been formed by the inhabitants of those places, that, if possible, it should not even

be landed. The cargo destined for Charleston was, indeed, landed and stored, but was not permitted to be offered for sale. The vessels which brought tea to Philadelphia and New York, were compelled to return to England, without even having made an entry at the custom-house.

It was designed by the leading patriots of Boston to make a similar disposition of the cargoes expected at that place; but, on their arrival, the consignees were found to be the relations or friends of the governor, and they could not be induced to resign their trust. Several town-meetings were held on the subject, and spirited resolutions passed, that no considerations would induce the inhabitants to permit the landing of the tea. Orders were at the same time given to the captains to obtain clearances at the custom-house, without the usual entries; but this the collector pertinaciously refused.

It was in this state of things that the citizens of Boston again assembled to determine what measures to adopt. While the discussions were going on, a captain of a vessel was despatched to the governor to request a passport. At length, he returned to say that the governor refused. The meeting was immediately dissolved. A secret plan had been formed to mingle the tea with the waters of the ocean. Three different parties soon after sal-



lied out, in the costume of Mohawk Indians, and precipitately made their way to the wharves. At the same time, the citizens

were seen in crowds directing their course to the same place, to become spectators of a scene as novel as the enterprise was bold. Without noise, without the tumult usual on similar occasions, the tea was taken from the vessel by the conspirators, and expeditiously offered as an oblation "to the watery god."

22. Intelligence of these proceedings was communicated, in a message from the throne, to both houses of parliament, on the 7th of March, 1774. The excitement was peculiarly strong. In the spirit of revenge against Massachusetts, and particularly against Boston, which was considered as the chief seat of rebellion, a bill was brought forward, called the "*Boston Port Bill*," by which the port of Boston was precluded from the privilege of landing or discharging, or of loading and shipping goods, wares, and merchandise.

A second bill, which passed at this time, essentially altered the charter of the province, making the appointment of the council, justices, judges, &c. dependent upon the crown, or its agent. A third soon followed, authorizing and directing the governor to send any person indicted for murder, or any other capital offence, to another colony, or to Great Britain, for trial.

23. On the arrival of these acts, the town of Boston passed the following vote: "That it is the opinion of this town, that, if the other colonies come into a joint resolution to stop all importation from Great Britain and the West Indies, till the act for blocking up this harbor be repealed, the same will prove the salvation of North America and her liberties." Copies of this vote were transmitted to each of the colonies.

As an expression of their sympathy with the people of Boston in their distress, the house of burgesses in Virginia ordered that the day on which the Boston port bill was to take effect, should be observed as a day of fasting and prayer.

Obs. The words *Whigs* and *Tories* were, about this time, introduced as the distinguishing names of parties. By the former was meant those who favored the cause of Boston, and were zealous in supporting the colonies against the parliament; by the latter was meant the favorers of Great Britain.

24. During these transactions in Massachusetts, measures had been taken to convene a continental congress. On the fourth of September, 1774, deputies from eleven colonies met at Philadelphia, and elected Peyton Randolph, the then late speaker of the Virginia assembly, president, and Charles Thompson, secretary. During its session, this body agreed upon a declaration of their rights; recommended the non-importation of British goods into the country, and the non-exportation of American produce to Great Britain, so long as their grievances were unredressed; voted an address to his majesty, and likewise one to the people of Great Britain, and another to the French inhabitants of Canada.

The congress, which thus terminated its session, has justly been celebrated, from that time to the present; and its celebrity will continue, while wisdom finds admirers, and patriotism is regarded with veneration. Both at home and abroad they were spoken of in terms of the highest admiration. *Abroad*, the Earl of Chatham, in one of his brilliant speeches, remarked of them:— "History, my lords, has been my favorite study; and in the celebrated writings of antiquity have I often admired the patriotism of Greece and Rome; but, my lords, I must declare and avow, that, in the master states of the world, I know not the people, or senate, who, in such a complication of difficult circumstances, can stand in preference to the delegates of America assembled in general congress at Philadelphia." At *home*, they were celebrated by a native and popular bard, in an equally elevated strain:—

Now meet the fathers of this western clime;
Nor names more noble graced the rolls of fame,
When Spartan firmness braved the wrecks of time,
Or Latian virtue fann'd the heroic flame.

Not deeper thought the immortal sage inspired,
On Solon's lips when Grecian senates hung;
Not manlier eloquence the bosom fired,
When genius thundered from the Athenian tongue.

25. An assembly was ordered, by Gov. Gage of Massachusetts, to convene October 5th; but before that period arrived, judging their meeting inexpedient, he counteracted the writs of convocation, by a proclamation. The assembly, however, to the number of ninety, met at Salem, where the governor not attending, they ad-

journed to Concord. Here they chose John Hancock president, and, after adjourning to Cambridge, drew up a plan for the immediate defence of the province, by enlisting men, appointing general officers, &c.

In November, this provincial congress met again, and resolved to equip twelve thousand men, to act in any emergency; and to enlist one fourth part of the militia as minute-men. At the same time, a request was forwarded to Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island, jointly to increase this army to twenty thousand men.

26. Early the next year, January 7th, 1775, Lord Chatham, Mr. Pitt, after a long retirement, resumed his seat in the house of lords, and introduced *a conciliatory bill*, the object of which was to settle the troubles in America. But the efforts of this venerable and peace-making man wholly failed, the bill being rejected by a majority of sixty-four to thirty-two, without even the compliment of laying it on the table.

The rejection of this bill was followed the next day by the introduction of a bill, which finally passed, to restrain the trade of the New England provinces, and to forbid their fishing on the banks of Newfoundland. Soon after, restrictions were imposed upon the middle and southern colonies, with the exception of New York, Delaware, and North Carolina. This bill, designed to promote disunion among the colonies, happily failed of its object.

Thus we have given a succinct account of the system of measures adopted by the ministry of England toward the American colonies after the peace of '63—measures most unfeeling and unjust; but which no petitions, however respectful, and no remonstrances, however loud, could change. Satisfied of this, justice permitted the people, and self-respect and self-preservation loudly summoned them, to *resist by force.*

27. The crisis, therefore, had now arrived, the signal of war was given, and the blood shed at *Lexington* opened the scene.

Gen. Gage, the king's governor of Massachusetts, learning that a large quantity of military stores had been deposited by the provincials at Concord, detached Lieut.

Col. Smith, and Major Pitcairn, with eight hundred grenadiers, to destroy them. On their arrival at Lexington, on the morning of the 19th of April, 1775, seventy of the militia, who had hastily assembled upon an alarm, were under arms on the parade. Eight of these were, without provocation, killed, and several wounded.



The greatest precaution was taken by Governor Gage, to prevent the intelligence of this expedition from reaching the country. Officers were dispersed along the road to intercept expresses, who might be sent from Boston. But the precaution proved ineffectual. The alarm was given, and was rapidly spread by means of church bells, guns, and volleys.

The slaughter of the militia at Lexington was extremely wanton. Major Pitcairn, the British commander, on seeing them on the parade, rode up to them, and, with a loud voice, cried out, "Disperse, disperse, you rebels; throw down your arms and disperse." The sturdy yeomanry not immediately obeying his orders, he approached nearer, discharged his pistol, and ordered his soldiers to fire.

From Lexington, the detachment proceeded to Concord, and destroyed the stores. After killing several of the militia, who came forth to oppose them, they retreated to Lexington with

some loss, the Americans firing upon them from behind walls, hedges, and buildings.

Fortunately for the British, here Lord Percy met them, with a reinforcement of nine hundred men, some marines, and two field-pieces. Still annoyed by the provincials, they continued their retreat to Bunker's Hill, in Charlestown, and the day following crossed over to Boston. The British lost, in killed and wounded, during their absence, two hundred and seventy-three. The loss of the Americans amounted to eighty-eight killed, wounded and missing.

28. Hostilities having commenced, it was deemed important to secure the fortresses of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Accordingly, a number of volunteers from Connecticut and Vermont, under command of Col. Ethan Allen and Col. Benedict Arnold, marched against Ticonderoga, and, on the 10th of May, took it by surprise, the garrison being asleep. The fortress of Crown Point surrendered shortly after.



On the arrival of Allen at Ticonderoga, he demanded the fort. "By what authority?" asked the commander. "I demand it," said Allen, "in the name of the great Jehovah, and of the continental congress." The summons was instantly obeyed, and the fort was, with its valuable stores, surrendered.

29. The taking of Ticonderoga and Crown Point was soon followed by the memorable *Battle of Bunker's Hill*, as it is usually called, or of Breed's Hill, a high eminence in Charlestown, within cannon-shot of Boston, where the battle was actually fought, on the 17th of June.

The evening preceding, a detachment of one thousand Americans was ordered to make an intrenchment on Bunker's Hill; but, by some mistake, they proceeded to *Breed's Hill*, and, by the dawn of day, had thrown up a redoubt eight rods square and four feet high.

On discovering this redoubt in the morning, the British commenced a severe cannonade upon it, from several ships and floating batteries, and from a fortification on Copp's Hill, in Boston, which was continued until afternoon. The Americans, however, never intermitted their work for a moment, and, during the forenoon, lost but a single man.

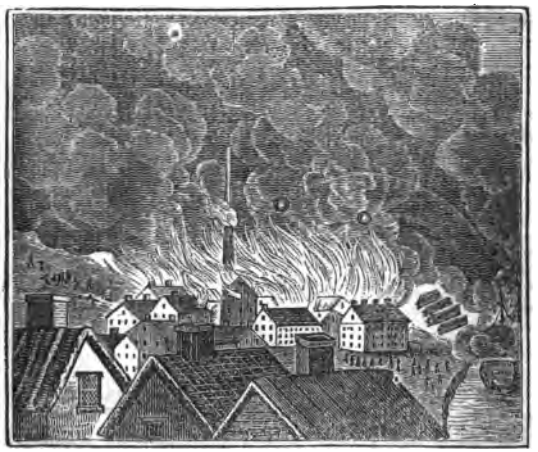
Between twelve and one o'clock, three thousand British, under command of Major-Gen. Howe, and Brigadier-Gen. Pigot, crossed Charles River, with an intention to dislodge the Americans.



As they advanced, the British commenced firing at some distance from the redoubt; but the Americans reserved *their* fire until the enemy were within twelve rods. They then opened, and

the carnage was terrible. The British retreated in precipitate confusion. They were, however, rallied by their officers, being, in some instances, pushed on by their swords, and were again led to the attack. The Americans now suffered them to approach within six rods, when their fire mowed them down in heaps, and again they fled. Unfortunately for the Americans, their ammunition here failed; and, on the third charge of the British, they were obliged to retire, after having obstinately resisted, even longer than prudence admitted. The British lost in this engagement two hundred and twenty-six killed, among whom was Major Pitcairn, who first lighted the torch of war at Lexington, and eight hundred and twenty-eight wounded. The Americans lost one hundred and thirty-nine killed, and of wounded and missing there were three hundred and fourteen. Among the killed was the lamented Gen. Warren.

The horrors of this scene were greatly increased by the conflagration of Charlestown, effected, during the heat of the battle by the orders of Gen. Gage. By this wanton act of barbarity



two thousand people were deprived of their habitations, and property to the amount of one hundred and twenty thousand pounds sterling, perished in the flames. Wanton, however, as the burning of Charlestown was, it wonderfully enhanced the dreadful magnificence of the day. To the volleys of musketry and

the roar of cannon; to the shouts of the fighting and the groans of the dying; to the dark and awful atmosphere of smoke, enveloping the whole peninsula, and illumined in every quarter by the streams of fire from the various instruments of death; the conflagration of six hundred buildings added a gloomy and amazing grandeur. In the midst of this waving lake of flame, the lofty steeple, converted into a blazing pyramid, towered and trembled over the vast pyre, and finished the scene of desolation.

To the Americans, the consequences of this battle were those of a decided victory. They learned that their enemies were not invulnerable. At the same time, they learned the importance of stricter discipline and greater preparations. As the result of the battle spread, the national pulse beat still higher, and the arm of opposition was braced still more firmly.

30. The second continental congress met at Philadelphia, on the 10th of May. As military opposition to Great Britain was now resolved upon by the colonies, and had actually commenced, it became necessary to fix upon a proper person to conduct that opposition. The person unanimously selected by congress was *George Washington*, a member of their body from Virginia.

The honor of having suggested and advocated the choice of this illustrious man, is justly ascribed to the elder President Adams, at that time a member of the continental congress. The army was at this time at Cambridge, Massachusetts, under Gen. Ward. As yet, congress had not adopted the army, nor had it taken any measures to appoint a commander-in-chief. These points could with safety be neglected no longer. This Mr. Adams clearly saw, and by his eloquence induced congress to appoint a day when the subject should be discussed.

The day was fixed. It came. Mr. Adams went in, took the floor, urged the measure of adopting the army, and, after debate, it passed. The next thing was to get a lawful commander for this lawful army, with supplies, &c. All looked to Mr. Adams, on this occasion; and he was ready. He took the floor, and went into a minute delineation of the character of General Ward, bestowing on him the epithets which, then, belonged to no one else. At the end of this eulogy, he said, "But this is not the man I have chosen." He then portrayed the character of a commander-in-chief, such as was required by the peculiar situation of the colonies at that juncture; and after he had presented the qualifications in his strongest language, and given the reasons for the nomination he was about to make, he said, "Gentlemen, I know these qualifications are high, but we all know they are needful, at this crisis, in this chief. Does any one say that they are not to be

obtained in the country? I reply, they are: they reside in one of our own body, and he is the person whom I now nominate, GEORGE WASHINGTON, of Virginia."

Washington, who sat on Mr. Adams's right hand, was looking him intently in the face, to watch the name he was about to announce; and not expecting it would be his own, he sprung from his seat the moment he heard it, and rushed into an adjoining room, as quickly as though moved by a shock of electricity.

An adjournment was immediately moved and carried, in order to give the members time to deliberate on so important a measure. The following day Washington was unanimously appointed commander-in-chief of the American forces; and on presenting their commission to him, congress unanimously adopted the resolution, "that they would maintain and assist him, and adhere to him, with their lives and fortunes, in the cause of American liberty."

Following the appointment of Gen. Washington, was the appointment of four major-generals, Artemas Ward, Charles Lee, Philip Schuyler, and Israel Putnam; and eight brigadier-generals, Seth Pomeroy, Richard Montgomery, David Wooster, William Heath, Joseph Spencer, John Thomas, John Sullivan, and Nathaniel Greene.

31. Gen. Washington, on his arrival at Cambridge, on the second of July, was received with joyful acclamations by the American army. He found it, consisting of 14,000 men, stretched from Roxbury to Cambridge, and thence to Mystic River, a distance of twelve miles. The British forces occupied Bunker and Breed's Hill, and Boston Neck.

The attention of the commander-in-chief was immediately directed to the strength and situation of the enemy, and to the introduction of system and union into the army, the want of which pervaded every department. This was a delicate and difficult attempt; but the wisdom and firmness of Washington removed every obstacle, and at length brought even independent freemen, in a good degree, to the control of military discipline.

32. While Washington was employed in organizing the army, and preparing for future operations, an important expedition was planned against Canada, the charge of which was assigned to Gens. Schuyler and Montgomery. On the 10th of September, one thousand American troops landed at St. Johns, the first British post in Canada, (one hundred and fifteen miles north of Ticon-

deroga,) but found it advisable to retire to the Isle aux Noix, twelve miles south of St. Johns. Here the health of Gen. Schuyler obliging him to return to Ticonderoga, the command devolved on Gen. Montgomery. This enterprising officer, in a few days, returned to the investment of St. Johns, and, on the 3d of November, received the surrender of this important post.

On the surrender of St. Johns, five hundred regulars and one hundred Canadians became prisoners to the provincials. There were also taken thirty-nine pieces of cannon, seven mortars, and five hundred stands of arms.

Gen. Montgomery next proceeded against Montreal, which, without resistance, capitulated. From Montreal he rapidly proceeded towards Quebec.

Before his arrival, however, Col. Arnold, who had been despatched by Gen. Washington with one thousand American troops from Cambridge, had reached Quebec, by the way of Kennebeck, a river of Maine,—had ascended the heights of Abraham, where the brave Wolfe ascended before him; but had found it necessary to retire to a place twenty miles above Quebec, where he was waiting for the arrival of Montgomery.

Seldom was there an expedition attempted during the American war, in which more hardship was endured, or more untiring perseverance manifested, than in this of Arnold's. In ascending the Kennebeck, his troops were constantly obliged to work against an impetuous current, and often to haul their batteaux up rapid currents and over dangerous falls. Nor was their march through the country, by an unexplored route of three hundred miles, less difficult or dangerous. They had swamps and woods, mountains and precipices, alternately to surpass. Added to their other trials, their provisions failed, and, to support life, they were obliged to eat their dogs, cartouch-boxes, clothes, and shoes. While at the distance of one hundred miles from human habitations, they divided their whole store, about four pints of flour to a man. At thirty miles' distance, they had baked and eaten their last pitiful morsel. Yet the courage and fortitude of these men continued unshaken. They were suffering in their country's cause, were toiling for wives and children, were contending for the rights and blessings of freedom. After thirty-one days of incessant toil through a hideous wilderness, they reached the habitations of men.

33. Montgomery, having effected a junction with Arnold, commenced the siege of Quebec. On the 5th of December, after continuing the siege nearly a month to little purpose, the bold plan was adopted of attempting the place by scaling the walls. Two attacks were made, at the same time, in different quarters of the town, by Montgomery and Arnold. The attempt, however, proved unsuccessful, and, to the great loss and grief of America, fatal to the brave Montgomery. He fell while attempting to force a barrier; and with him fell two distinguished officers, Capt. M'Pherson, his aid, and Capt. Cheeseman.

After this repulse, Arnold retired about three miles from Quebec, where he continued encamped through a rigorous winter. On the return of spring, 1776, finding his forces inadequate to the reduction of Quebec, and not being reinforced, he retired. By the 18th of June, the Americans, having been compelled to relinquish one post after another, had wholly evacuated Canada.

The garrison of Quebec consisted, at the time of the above attack, of about one thousand five hundred men; the American forces were near eight hundred. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded was about one hundred, and three hundred were taken prisoners.

The death of General Montgomery was deeply lamented both in Europe and America. "The most powerful speakers in the British parliament displayed their eloquence in praising his virtues and lamenting his fall." Congress directed a monument to be erected to his memory, expressive of their sense of his high patriotism and heroic conduct. In 1818, New York, his adopted state, removed his remains to her own metropolis, where the monument had been placed; and near that they repose.

34. During this year, 1775, Virginia, through the indiscretion of Lord Dunmore, the royal governor, was involved in difficulties little short of those to which the inhabitants of Massachusetts were subjected. From the earliest stages of the controversy with Great Britain, the Virginians had been in the foremost rank of opposition; and, in common with other provinces, had taken measures for defence.

These measures the royal governor attempted to thwart, by the removal of guns and ammunition, which had been stored by the people in a magazine. The conduct of the governor roused the inhabitants, and occasioned intemperate expressions of resentment. Apprehending personal danger, Lord Dunmore retired on board the Fowey man-of-war, from which he issued his proclamations, instituting martial law, and proffering freedom to such slaves as would repair to the royal standard. Here, also, by degrees, he equipped and armed a number of vessels; and, upon being refused provisions by the provincials, from on shore, he proceeded to reduce the town of Norfolk to ashes. The loss was estimated at three hundred thousand pounds sterling. Nearly six thousand persons were deprived of their habitations.

In like manner, the royal governors of North and South Carolina thought it prudent to retire, and seek safety on board men-of-war. Royal government generally terminated this year throughout the country, the king's governors, for the most part, abdicating their governments, and taking refuge on board the English shipping

35. Early in the spring of 1776, Gen. Washington contemplated the expulsion of the British army from Boston, by direct assault. In a council of war, it was deemed expedient, however, rather to take possession of, and fortify Dorchester Heights, which commanded the harbor and British shipping. The night of the 4th of March was selected for the attempt. Accordingly, in the evening, a covering party of eight hundred, followed by a working party of twelve hundred, with intrenching tools, took possession of the heights unobserved by the enemy.

Here, betaking themselves to work with so much activity, by morning they had constructed fortifications, which completely sheltered them. The surprise of the British cannot easily be conceived. The English admiral, after examining the works, declared that, if the Americans were not dislodged from their position, his vessels could no longer remain in safety in the harbor.

It was determined, therefore, by the British, to evacuate Boston, which they now did; and on the 17th, the British troops, under command of Lord William Howe, successor of Gen. Gage, sailed for Halifax. Gen. Washington, to the great joy of the inhabitants, army, and nation, immediately marched into the town.

The rear guard of the British was scarcely out of the town, when Washington entered it on the other side, with colors displayed, drums beating, and all the forms of victory and triumph. He was received by the inhabitants with demonstrations of joy and gratitude. Sixteen months had the people suffered the distresses of hunger, and the outrages of an insolent soldiery.

The town presented a melancholy spectacle, at the time the army of Washington entered. One thousand five hundred loyalists, with their families, had just departed on board the British fleet, tearing themselves from home and friends, for the love of the royal cause. Churches were stripped of pews and benches for fuel, shops were opened and rifled of goods to clothe the army, and houses had been pillaged by an unfeeling soldiery.

36. While affairs were proceeding thus in the north, an attempt was made, in June and July, to destroy the fort on Sullivan's Island, near Charleston, S. C., by Gen. Clinton and Sir Peter Parker. After an action of upwards of ten hours, the British were obliged to retire, having their ships greatly injured, and with the loss of two hundred killed and wounded. The loss of the Americans was but ten killed and twenty-two wounded.

The fort was commanded by Col. Moultrie, whose garrison consisted of but three hundred and seventy-five regular troops, and a few militia. On the fort was mounted twenty-six cannon of eighteen and nine pounders. The British force consisted of two fifty gun ships, and four frigates, each of twenty-eight guns, besides several smaller vessels, with three thousand troops on board. By this repulse of the British, the Southern States obtained a respite from the calamities of war for two years and a half.

Among the American troops who resisted the British, in their attack on Fort Moultrie, was a Sergeant Jasper, whose name has been given to one of the counties in Georgia, in commemoration of his gallant deeds, and who deserves an honorable notice in every history of his country. In the warmest part of the contest, the flag-staff was severed by a cannon-ball, and the flag fell to the bottom of the ditch, on the outside of the works. This accident was considered by the anxious inhabitants in Charleston,

as putting an end to the contest, by striking the American flag to the enemy. The moment Jasper made the discovery, that the flag had fallen, he jumped from one of the embrasures, and took up the flag, which he tied to a post, and replaced it on the parapet, where he supported it until another flag-staff was procured.

37. During these transactions in the south, the continental congress was in session, intently observing the aspect of things, and deeply revolving the probable issue of the present important contest. The idea of independence had now been broached among the people, and the way was, in a measure, prepared to bring the subject before congress.

Accordingly, on the 8th of June, Richard Henry Lee, one of the deputies from Virginia, rose and made a motion to declare America free and independent.

38. The resolution of Mr. Lee was eloquently supported by him and others, and was still further discussed on the 11th of June. On this last day, it was postponed for further consideration to the first day of July; and at the same time it was voted that a committee be appointed to propose a DECLARATION to the effect of the resolution. This committee was elected by ballot on the following day, and consisted of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston.

It is usual, when committees are elected by ballot, that their numbers are arranged in order according to the number of votes which each has received. Mr. Jefferson, therefore, probably received the highest, and Mr. Adams the next highest number of votes. The difference is said to have been but a single vote.

Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Adams, standing thus at the head of the committee, were requested by the other members to act as a subcommittee to prepare the draft; and Mr. Jefferson drew up the paper. The original draft, as brought by him from his study, with interlineations in the hand-writing of Dr. Franklin, and others in that of Mr. Adams, was in Mr. Jefferson's possession at the time of his death. The merit of this paper is Mr. Jefferson's; some changes were made in it on the suggestion of other members of the committee, and others by congress, while it was under discussion. But none of them altered the tone, the frame, the arrangement, or the general character of the instrument. As a composition, the Declaration is Mr. Jefferson's. It is the produc-

tion of his mind, and the high honor of it belongs to him clearly and absolutely.

While Mr. Jefferson was the author of the Declaration itself, Mr. Adams was its great supporter on the floor of congress. This was the unequivocal testimony of Mr. Jefferson. "John Adams," said he, on one occasion, "was our Colossus on the floor: not graceful, not elegant, not always fluent in his public addresses, he yet came out with a power, both of thought and of expression, that moved us from our seats." And at another time he said, "John Adams was the pillar of its support on the floor of congress; its ablest advocate and defender against the multifarious assaults which were made against it."

39. On the arrival of the day assigned, the subject was resumed, and on the *4th of July*, 1776, upon the report of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Philip Livingston, the thirteen confederate colonies dissolved their allegiance to the British crown, and declared themselves *Free and Independent*, under the name of the *Thirteen United States of America*.

This Declaration was ordered to be handsomely engrossed on parchment; and on the 2d of August, 1776, was signed by all the members then present, and by some who were not members on the 4th of July.

A signature to this instrument was an act of serious concern. In England, it would be regarded as *treason*, and expose any man to the halter or the block. This the signers well knew; yet, having counted the cost, they proceeded to the transaction, prepared, if defeat should follow, to lead, without repining, in the way to martyrdom. The only signature on the original document, which exhibits indications of a trembling hand, is that of Stephen Hopkins, who had been afflicted with the palsy. In this work of treason, *John Hancock* led the way, as president of the congress, and by the force with which he wrote, he seems to have determined that *his* name should never be erased. The pen with which these signatures were made, has been preserved, and is now in the cabinet of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

The number who signed the Declaration was fifty-six; and the average length of their lives was about sixty-five years. Four of the number attained to the age of ninety years and upwards; fourteen exceeded eighty years; and twenty-three, or one in two and a half, reached threescore years and ten. The longevity of the New England delegation was still more remarkable. Their number was fourteen, the average of whose lives was seventy-five years. Who will affirm that the unusual age to which the

signers, as a body, attained, was not a reward bestowed upon them for their fidelity to their country, and the trust which they in general reposed in the overruling providence of God? Who can doubt the kindness of that Providence to the American people, in thus prolonging the lives of these men, till the principles for which they had contended, through a long series of years, had been acknowledged, and a government been founded upon them?

Of this venerable body, not a single one survives. They are now no more. They are no more, as in 1776, bold and fearless advocates of independence. They are dead. But how little is there of the great and good which can die. To their country they yet live, and live forever. They live in all that perpetuates the remembrance of men on earth; in the recorded proofs of their own great actions, in the offspring of their own great interest, in the deep-engraved lines of public gratitude, and in the respect and homage of mankind. They live in their example; and they live emphatically, and will live, in the influence which their lives and efforts, their principles and opinions, now exercise, and will continue to exercise, on the affairs of men, not only in our own country, but throughout the civilized world.

The Declaration of Independence, when sent abroad among the people, was received with transports of joy. Public rejoicings were made in various parts of the Union. The ensigns of royalty were destroyed—public processions were made—bells were rung—cannon were fired, with other suitable demonstrations of public exultation.

40 Soon after the evacuation of Boston by the British troops, (*Sec.* 35,) Washington, believing that the possession of New York would be with them a favorite object, determined to make it the head-quarters of his army, and thereby prevent their occupation of it, if such a step had been contemplated. Accordingly, he soon removed to that city, with the principal part of his troops.

41. On the 10th of June, Gen. William Howe, with the army which had evacuated Boston, arrived from Halifax, off Sandy Hook. Here he was soon after joined by his brother, Admiral Lord Howe, from England, with a reinforcement. Their combined forces amounted to twenty-four thousand. On the 2d of August, they landed near the Narrows, nine miles from the city.

42. Previous to the commencement of hostilities, Admiral and Gen. Howe communicated to Washington,

that they were commissioned to settle all difficulties between Great Britain and the colonies. But not addressing Washington by the title due to his rank, he thought proper to decline receiving their communication. It appeared, however, that the power of these commissioners extended little farther than, in the language of their instructions, "to grant pardons to such as deserve mercy."

43. The American army, in and near New York, amounted to seventeen thousand two hundred and twenty-five men, a part of whom were encamped near Brooklyn, on Long Island. On the 27th of August, this body of the Americans, under command of Brigadier-Gen. Sullivan, were attacked by the British, under Sir Henry Clinton, Percy, and Cornwallis, and were defeated, with the loss of upwards of a thousand men, while the loss of the British amounted to less than four hundred. Gen. Sullivan, and Brigadier-Generals Lord Stirling and Woodhull, fell into the hands of the British as prisoners.

In the heat of the engagement, Gen. Washington had crossed over to Brooklyn from New York, and, on seeing some of his best troops slaughtered or taken, he uttered, it is said, an exclamation of anguish. But, deep as his anguish was, and much as he wished to succor his troops, prudence forbade the calling in of his forces from New York, as they would by no means have sufficed to render his army equal to that of the English.

44. After the repulse at Brooklyn, perceiving the occupation of his position on Long Island to be of no probable importance, Washington withdrew his troops to New York, and soon after evacuated the city, upon which, on the 15th of September, the British entered it

Seldom, if ever, was a retreat conducted with more ability and prudence, or under more favorable auspices, than that of the American troops from Long Island. The necessary preparations having been made, on the 29th of August, at eight in the evening, the troops began to move in the greatest silence. But they were not on board their vessels before eleven. A violent north-east wind, and the ebb tide, which rendered the current very rapid, prevented the passage. The time pressed, however. For-

tunately, the wind suddenly veered to the north-west. They immediately made sail, and landed in New York. Providence appeared to have watched over the Americans. About two o'clock in the morning, a thick fog, and at this season of the year extraordinary, covered all Long Island, whereas the air was perfectly clear on the side of New York. Notwithstanding the entreaties of his officers, Washington remained the last upon the shore. It was not till the next morning, when the sun was already high, and the fog dispelled, that the English perceived the Americans had abandoned their camp, and were sheltered from pursuit.

45. On retiring from New York, Gen. Washington, with his army, occupied for a short time the heights of Harlem, and several stations in that neighborhood.

On the 16th of September, the day after the British took possession of New York, a considerable body of the enemy appearing in the plains between the two camps, the general ordered Col. Knowlton, with a corps of rangers, and Major Leitch, with three companies of a Virginia regiment, to get in their rear, while he amused them by making apparent dispositions to attack their front. The plan succeeded. A skirmish ensued, in which the Americans charged the enemy with great intrepidity, and gained considerable advantage; but the principal benefit of this action was its influence in reviving the depressed spirits of the whole army. Major Leitch, who very gallantly led on the detachment, was soon brought off the ground, mortally wounded; and not long afterward, Colonel Knowlton fell, bravely fighting at the head of his troops. The Americans in this conflict engaged a battalion of light infantry, another of Highlanders, and three companies of Hessian riflemen; and lost about fifty men killed and wounded. The loss of the enemy was more than double that number.

46. Finding his position at Harlem and its vicinity untenable, Washington broke up his camp, and retired with a part of his forces to White Plains. Here, on the 28th of October, he was attacked by the British and Hessians, under Generals Howe, Clinton, Knyphausen, and De Heister. A partial engagement ensued, and several hundreds fell on both sides; but neither party could claim any decided advantage.

Shortly after, a strong British reinforcement arriving, under Lord Percy, Washington, deeming his position unsafe, left it on the night of the 30th, and retired with

his forces to North Castle, about five miles from White Plains. Leaving about 7500, under command of Gen. Lee, Washington crossed the North river, and took post in the neighborhood of Fort Lee.

47. The British general, failing to draw Washington to a general engagement, next turned his attention to the reduction of Forts Washington and Lee, which had been garrisoned for the purpose of preserving the command of the Hudson river. On the 16th of November, the former of these forts was attacked by the British. The defence of the fort by the brave Col. Magaw was spirited; but at length he was obliged to capitulate, and, with the fort, to surrender his whole force, consisting of between 2000 and 3000 men. On the 18th, the British army, crossing the Hudson, proceeded to the attack of Fort Lee. The garrison in this fort, at first, determined to defend it; but, ascertaining that the contest would be entirely unequal, they evacuated it, and, under the guidance of Gen. Greene, joined Washington, who had at this time taken post at Newark, on the south side of the Passaic.

48. Finding Newark too near his triumphant foe, Washington retreated to Brunswick, on the Raritan, and Lord Cornwallis on the same day entered Newark. The retreat was still continued from Brunswick to Princeton; from Princeton to Trenton; and from Trenton to the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware. The pursuit was urged with so much rapidity, that the rear of the American army, pulling down bridges, was often within sight and shot of the van of the enemy employed in building them up.

This retreat through New Jersey was made under circumstances of the deepest depression. The Americans had just lost the two forts Washington and Lee, and with the former more than 2000 men. Numbers of the militia were daily claiming to be discharged, and precipitately retired to their habitations; and even the regular troops, as if struck with despair, also filed off, and deserted in bodies. This left the army of Washington so reduced, that it scarcely amounted to three thousand men; and even these were

poorly fed, and were exposed in an open country, without instruments to intrench themselves, without tents to shelter them from the inclemency of the season, and in the midst of a population little zealous, or rather hostile to the republic. Added to this, numbers of the leading characters, both in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, who had been friendly to the American cause, were changing sides, and making peace with the enemy. This example became pernicious, and the most prejudicial effects were to be apprehended from it. Every day ushered in some new calamity; the cause of America seemed hastening to irretrievable ruin. The most discreet no longer dissembled that the term of the war was at hand, and that the hour was come, in which the colonies were about to resume the yoke. But Washington, in the midst of so much adversity, did not despair of the public safety. His constancy was an object of admiration. Far from betraying any symptoms of hesitation or fear, he showed himself to his dejected soldiers with a serene countenance, and radiant, as it were, with a certain hope of a better future. Adverse fortune had not been able to vanquish, nay, not even to shake, his invincible spirit. Firmly resolved to pursue their object through every fortune, the congress manifested a similar constancy. It appeared as if the spirit of these great minds had increased with adversity.

49. Notwithstanding the general aspect of affairs, on the part of America, was thus forbidding, the continental congress, so far from betraying symptoms of despair, manifested more confidence than ever; and, as if success must eventually crown their enterprises, calmly occupied themselves in drawing up various *Articles of Confederation* and perpetual union between the states.

Such articles were obviously necessary, that the line of distinction between the powers of the respective states, and of congress, should be exactly defined. In this way, only, would collisions be avoided, and the peace and harmony of the Union be preserved.

Accordingly, such articles were now digested, and, at the sitting of congress, October 4th, 1776, were signed by all the members, and copies immediately sent to the respective assemblies of each state for approbation.

50. Fortunately, Washington, about this time, received reinforcements of militia and regular troops, which, together with his previous forces, gave him an

army of about 7000 effective men. But this number being soon to be reduced by the retirement of a large body of militia, whose period of enlistment would close with the year, Washington formed the bold resolution of recrossing the Delaware, and of attacking the British at Trenton. This plan was carried into effect on the night of the 25th of December; and on the following day, Hessian prisoners to the amount of one thousand were taken by the Americans, with the loss of scarcely a man on their side. This was a brilliant achievement, and served to arouse the desponding hopes of America.



The American troops detached for this service arrived, in the dusk of the evening, at the bank of the river. The passage of the river by the troops and the artillery, it was expected, would be effected before midnight. But this was found to be impracticable. The cold was so intense, and the river so obstructed with floating ice, that the landing of the artillery was not accomplished until four in the morning. An immediate and precipitate march was made towards Trenton, with the hope of reaching it before day. But a thick fog setting in, and a mist, mingled with sleet, so retarded their march, that they did not reach Trenton until

eight o'clock; yet, at this late hour, the Hessians had no suspicion of the approach of the enemy.

51. Justly elated with the success at Trenton, Washington soon after proceeded to Princeton, where, on the 1st of January, he attacked a party of British, of whom upwards of one hundred were killed, and the remainder, amounting to about three hundred, were made prisoners. The loss of the Americans was less than that of the British; but in that number were several valuable officers, and among them the brave General Mercer.

52. Soon after the above victories, Washington retired (January 6th, 1777) to winter quarters, at Morristown, where his army were nearly all inoculated with the small-pox, that disease having appeared among the troops, and rendering such a measure necessary. The disease proved mortal but in few instances; nor was there a day in which the soldiers could not, if called upon, have fought the enemy.

53. On the opening of the campaign of 1777, the army of Washington, although congress had offered to recruits bounties in land, and greater wages, amounted to little more than 7000 men. Towards the latter end of May, Washington quitted his winter encampment at Morristown, and, about the same time, the royal army moved from Brunswick, which they had occupied during the winter. Much shifting of the armies followed, but no definite plan of operation had apparently been settled by either.

Previous to this, however, General Howe sent a detachment of two thousand men, under command of Gen. Tryon, Gen. Agnew, and Sir William Erskine, to destroy some stores and provisions deposited at Danbury, in Connecticut. Meeting with no resistance, they reached Danbury on the 26th of April, and destroyed one thousand eight hundred barrels of beef and pork, and eight hundred of flour, two thousand bushels of grain, clothing for a regiment, one hundred hogsheads of rum, and one thousand seven hundred and ninety tents. Besides the destruction of these articles, the enemy wantonly burned eighteen houses with their furniture, murdered three unoffending inhabitants, and threw them into the flames.

Generals Sullivan, Wooster, and Arnold, happening to be in the neighborhood, hastily collected about six hundred militia, with whom they marched in pursuit, in a heavy rain, as far as Bethel, about two miles from Danbury. On the morning of the 27th of April, the troops were divided, Gen. Wooster, with about three hundred men, falling in the rear of the enemy, while Arnold took post in front, at Ridgefield.

Gen. Wooster proceeded to attack the enemy, in which engagement he was mortally wounded, and from which his troops were compelled to retire. At Ridgefield, Arnold warmly received the enemy on their retreat, and, although repulsed, returned to the attack the next day on their march to the Sound. Finding themselves continually annoyed by the resolute and courageous yeomanry of the country through which they passed, they hastened to embark on board their ships, in which they sailed for New York. Their killed, wounded and missing, amounted to about one hundred and seventy: the loss of the Americans was not admitted to exceed one hundred. Gen. Wooster, now in his seventieth year, lingered with his wounds until the 2d of May. Congress resolved that a monument should be erected to his memory. To Gen. Arnold they presented a horse, properly caparisoned, as a reward for his gallantry on the occasion.

54. At length the British Gen. Howe, leaving New Jersey, embarked at Sandy Hook, with sixteen thousand men, and sailed for the Chesapeake. On the 14th of August, he landed his troops, at the head of Elk river, in Maryland.

It being now obvious that his design was the occupation of Philadelphia, Washington immediately put the American army in motion towards that place, to prevent, if possible, its falling into the hands of the enemy.

The two armies met at Brandywine, Delaware, on the 11th of September; and after an engagement, which continued nearly all day, the Americans were compelled to retire.

The loss of the Americans in this action was estimated at three hundred killed, and six hundred wounded. Between three and four hundred, principally the wounded, were made prisoners. The loss of the British was stated at less than one hundred killed, and four hundred wounded.

In this battle several foreign officers greatly distinguished themselves. Among these was the heroic Lafayette, who, unfortunately, while endeavoring to rally some fugitives, was wounded in the leg.

On the night following the battle, the Americans retired to Chester, and the next day to Philadelphia. Not considering the battle of Brandywine as decisive, congress, which was sitting in Philadelphia, recommended to the commander-in-chief to risk another engagement; preparations for which were accordingly made. Washington repassed the Schuylkill, and met the enemy at Goshen, Sept. 16th. But a violent shower of rain occurring, as the advanced guards began to skirmish, the powder in the cartridge-boxes of the Americans became wet, and the commander was compelled to withdraw his troops.

55. An easy access to Philadelphia being now presented to the enemy, on the 26th, Howe entered the place without molestation. The principal part of the British army was stationed at Germantown, six miles from Philadelphia. Congress adjourned to Lancaster, and Washington encamped at eighteen miles' distance from Germantown.

56. Immediately after the occupation of Philadelphia, the attention of Gen. Howe was drawn to the reduction of some forts on the Delaware, which rendered the navigation of that river unsafe to the British. Accordingly, a part of the royal army was detached for that purpose. Washington seized the opportunity to attack the remainder at Germantown.

This attack was made Oct. 4th; but after a severe action, the Americans were repulsed, with a loss of double that of the British. The loss of the Americans was two hundred killed, six hundred wounded, and four hundred prisoners; that of the British was about one hundred killed and five hundred wounded.

After this action, the British removed to Philadelphia, where they continued long inactive. Washington retreated to Skippack creek, eleven miles from Germantown, where he encamped.

Great was the chagrin of Washington, on account of the repulse at Germantown, which was much increased by the auspicious commencement of the battle, and the flattering prospect of a speedy and complete victory. The ultimate failure of the Americans was attributed to the inexperience of a part of the troops, and to embarrassments arising from a fog, which increased the darkness of the night. Congress, however, expressed

their approbation of Washington's plan of attack, and highly applauded the courage and firmness of the troops.

57. While such was the progress of military operations in the *Middle States*, important events were taking place in the north. It has already been noticed, (*Sec.* 28,) that in May, 1775, Ticonderoga and Crown Point had been taken by surprise, by Colonels Allen and Arnold; that in the ensuing fall, Gen. Montgomery had reduced the fort of St. John's, (*Sec.* 32,) captured Montreal, and made an ineffectual though desperate assault upon Quebec.

On the return of spring, the American army gradually retired up the St. Lawrence, and after a loss of one post and another, in June, 1776, entirely evacuated Canada. (*Sec.* 33.)

In the spring of 1777, it was settled in England, that an invasion of the States should be attempted from the north, and a communication formed between Canada and New York. Could such a plan have been executed, it would obviously have precluded intercourse between New England and the more southern states.

The execution of the plan was committed to Gen. Burgoyne, who left Canada with seven thousand troops, besides a powerful train of artillery, and several tribes of Indians.

58. On the 1st of July, Burgoyne landed, and invested Ticonderoga. The American garrison here amounted to three thousand men, under command of Gen. St. Clair, an officer of high standing.

Deeming this force inadequate to maintain the post, especially as Burgoyne had taken possession of Mount Defiance, which commanded Ticonderoga, and not having provisions to sustain the army for more than twenty days, St. Clair perceived no safety for the garrison but in a precipitate flight. Accordingly, on the night of the 5th, Ticonderoga was abandoned. By a circuitous march, St. Clair continued to retreat, first into Vermont, although closely pursued, and thence to Hudson river,

where, after having lost one hundred and twenty pieces of artillery, with a quantity of military stores, he joined Gen. Schuyler, commanding the main army of the north. After this junction, the whole army continued to retire to Saratoga and Stillwater, and at length took post on Van Shaick's Island, in the mouth of the Mohawk, on the 18th of August.

59. After taking Ticonderoga, Gen. Burgoyne, with the great body of his troops, proceeded up the lake, and destroyed the American flotilla, and a considerable quantity of baggage and stores, which had been deposited at Skeensborough. Having halted at this place for nearly three weeks, he proceeded to Fort Edward, on the Hudson, where he did not arrive until July 30th, his way having been obstructed by Schuyler's army, which felled a great number of trees across the road, and demolished the bridges, while on their retreat.

60. While Gen. Burgoyne lay at Fort Edward, a detachment of his army, consisting of five hundred English and one hundred Indians, under Col. Baum, who had been sent to seize a magazine of stores at Bennington, in Vermont, was, totally defeated, and Col. Baum slain, by a party of Vermont troops called Green Mountain Boys, and a detachment of New Hampshire militia, under command of Gen. Stark.

Baum, on his arrival near Bennington, learning that the Americans were strongly intrenched at that place, halted, and despatched a messenger to Gen. Burgoyne, for a reinforcement.

Gen. Stark, now on his march, with a body of New Hampshire militia, to join Gen. Schuyler, receiving intelligence of Baum's approach, altered his movement, and collected his force at Bennington.

Before the expected reinforcement could arrive, Gen. Stark, having added to his New Hampshire corps a body of Vermont militia, determined to attack Baum in his intrenchments. Accordingly, on the 16th of August, an attack was made, which resulted in the flight of Baum's detachment, at the moment in which the reinforcement of troops, despatched by Gen. Burgoyne, arrived. With the assistance of these, the battle was now renewed, but ended in the discomfiture of the British forces, and

with a loss, on their part, of about seven hundred in killed and wounded. The loss of the Americans was about one hundred.

61. The battle at Bennington greatly revived the courage of the Americans, and as greatly disappointed the hopes of Gen. Burgoyne, as it served materially to embarrass and retard his movements.

The situation of this general, at this time, was seriously perplexing, being greatly in want of provisions, and the course of wisdom and prudence being not a little difficult to determine. To retreat was to abandon the object of his expedition; to advance seemed replete with difficulty and danger. This latter step, however, at length, appeared the most judicious.

Accordingly, on the 13th and 14th of September, he passed the Hudson, and advanced upon Saratoga and Stillwater. On the 17th, his army came nearly in contact with that of the Americans, now commanded by Gen. Gates, who had succeeded Schuyler, August 21: some skirmishing ensued, without bringing on a general battle.

62. Two days after, the two armies met, and a most obstinate, though indecisive, engagement ensued, in which the Americans lost, in killed and wounded, between three and four hundred, and the British about six hundred.

On the 7th of October, the battle was renewed, by a movement of Gen. Burgoyne towards the left of the Americans, by which he intended to effect his retreat to the lakes. The battle was extremely severe; and darkness only put an end to the effusion of blood.

During the night which succeeded, an attempt was made by the royal army to retreat to Fort Edward.—While preparing to march, intelligence was received that this fort was already in possession of the Americans. No avenue to escape now appeared open. Worn down with constant toil and watching, and having ascertained that he had but three days' provisions, a council of war was called, which unanimously resolved to capitulate to

Gen. Gates. Preliminaries were soon after settled, and the army, consisting of five thousand seven hundred effective men, surrendered prisoners of war on the 17th of October.

Gen. Gates, immediately after the victory, despatched Col. Wilkinson, to carry the happy tidings to congress On being introduced into the hall of congress, he said, "The whole British army has laid down arms at Saratoga; our sons, full of vigor and courage, expect your orders; it is for your wisdom to decide where the country may still have need of their services."

63. It would be difficult to describe the transports of joy, which the news of the surrender of Burgoyne excited among the Americans. They now began to look forward to the future with sanguine hopes, and eagerly expected the acknowledgment of their country's independence by France and other European powers. The capitulation of Gen. Burgoyne, at Saratoga, was soon followed by an acknowledgment of the independence of America at the court of France,* and the conclusion of a formal treaty of alliance and commerce between the two countries—an event highly auspicious to the interests of America. The treaty was signed Feb. 6th—"neither of the contracting powers to make war or peace, without the formal consent of the other."

For more than a year, commissioners from congress, at the head of whom was Dr. Franklin, had resided at the court of France, urging the above important measure. But the success of the American struggle was yet too doubtful for that country to embroil herself in a war with Great Britain. The capture of the British army at Saratoga seemed to increase the probability that the American arms would finally triumph, and decided France to espouse her cause.

64. Upon the conclusion of the campaign of 1777, the British army retired to winter quarters in Philadelphia, and the American army at Valley Forge, on the Schuylkill, fifteen miles from Philadelphia.

* Holland acknowledged the independence of the United States in 1782, Sweden in February, 1783; Denmark in the same month; Spain in March; Russia in July.

Scarcely were the American troops established in their encampment, which consisted of huts, before they were in danger of a famine. The adjacent country was nearly exhausted, and that which it might have spared, the inhabitants concealed in the woods. At this time, also, bills of credit had fallen to one fourth of their nominal value, so that one hundred dollars, in paper, would command no more than twenty-five dollars, in specie. In addition to these scenes of perplexity and suffering, the army was nearly destitute of comfortable clothing. Many, for want of shoes, walked barefoot on the frozen ground; few, if any, had blankets for the night. Great numbers sickened. Near three thousand at a time were incapable of bearing arms. While the defenders of the country were thus suffering and perishing, the royal army was enjoying all the conveniences which an opulent city afforded.

65. On the alliance of America with France, it was resolved in Great Britain immediately to evacuate Philadelphia, and to concentrate the royal force in the city of New York. In pursuance of this resolution, the royal army, on the 18th of June, passed the Delaware, into New Jersey, and continued their retreat to New York.

Gen. Washington, penetrating their design, had already sent forward a detachment to aid the New Jersey militia in impeding the progress of the enemy. With the main body of his army, he now crossed the Delaware in pursuit. June 28th, the two armies were engaged at Monmouth, sixty-four miles from Philadelphia, and, after a severe contest, in which the Americans, upon the whole, obtained the advantage, were separated only by night. Gen. Washington and his army reposed on the field of battle, intending to renew the attack in the morning. But the British general, during the night, made good his retreat towards New York.

The sufferings of both armies during this engagement, from the heat of the day, were unparalleled in the history of the revolutionary war. No less than fifty-nine British soldiers perished from heat, and several of the Americans died through the same cause. The tongues of many of the soldiers were so swollen, that it was impossible to retain them in the mouth. The loss of the Americans was eight officers and sixty-one privates killed, and about one hundred and sixty wounded; that of the British, in killed, wounded, and missing, was three hundred and fifty-eight men, including officers. One hundred were taken prisoners, and one thousand deserted during the march.

66. On the 1st of July, Count D'Estaing arrived at Newport, R. I., from France, with twelve ships of the

line and six frigates, to act in concert with the Americans in an attempt on Rhode Island, which had been in possession of the British since December, 1776.

Hearing of this expedition, Admiral Howe followed D'Estaing, and arrived in sight of Rhode Island the day after the French fleet had entered the harbor of Newport. On the appearance of Howe, the French admiral, instead of co-operating with the Americans, sailed out to give him battle. A storm, however, arising, separated the fleets. D'Estaing entered Boston to repair. Howe, after the storm, returned to Rhode Island, and landed Sir Henry Clinton, with four thousand troops; but, fortunately, the Americans had raised the siege of Newport the day before, and left the island. Sir Henry Clinton soon after sailed again for New York.

67. Hitherto the conquest of the States had been attempted by proceeding from north to south; but that order, towards the close of this year, began to be inverted, and the Southern States became the principal theatre on which the British conducted their offensive operations.

Georgia, being one of the weakest of the Southern States, was marked out as the first object of attack, in that quarter of the Union.

In November, Col. Campbell was despatched from New York by Gov. Clinton, with a force of two thousand men, against Savannah, the capital of that state. This expedition proved successful, and Savannah, and with it the state of Georgia itself, fell into the power of the English.

On the arrival of Campbell and his troops at Savannah, he was opposed by Gen. Howe, the American officer, to whom was intrusted the defence of Georgia. His force, consisting of only six hundred continentals, and a few hundred militia, was inadequate, however, to resist the enemy. After an engagement, in which the Americans killed upwards of one hundred, and took about four hundred and fifty prisoners, with several cannon, and large quantities of military stores, the capital surrendered.

In the succeeding year, 1779, Count D'Estaing, who, after repairing his fleet at Boston, had sailed for the West Indies, returned, with a design to co-operate with the Americans against the common enemy. In Sept. he arrived upon the coast of Georgia so unexpectedly, that the Experiment, a man-of-war of

fifty guns, and three frigates, fell into his hands. As soon as his arrival was known, Gen. Lincoln marched with the army under his command, and a body of militia of South Carolina and Georgia, to co-operate with him in the reduction of Savannah. Before Lincoln arrived, D'Estaing demanded the surrender of the town. This demand, Gen. Prevost, the English commander, requested a day to consider, which was incautiously granted. Before the day expired, a reinforcement of eight hundred men joined the standard of Prevost from Beaufort, whereupon he bid defiance to D'Estaing. On the arrival of Lincoln, it was determined to lay siege to the place. Much time was spent in preparation; but in an assault under D'Estaing and Lincoln, the Americans suffered so severely, both as to their number and in their works, that it was deemed expedient to abandon the project. Count D'Estaing re-embarked his troops, and left the continent.

68. The campaign of 1779 was distinguished for nothing splendid, or decisive, on the part either of America or England.

The British seemed to have aimed at little more than to distress, plunder, and consume, it having been, early in the year, adopted as a principle upon which to proceed, "to render the colonies of as little avail as possible to their new connections."

Actuated by these motives, an expedition was fitted out from New York for Virginia, which, in a predatory incursion, took possession of large naval stores, magazines of provisions, and great quantities of tobacco. After enriching themselves with various kinds of booty, and burning several places, they returned to New York.

Soon after this expedition to Virginia, a similar one, under the command of the infamous Gov. Tryon, was projected against the maritime parts of Connecticut. During this expedition, New Haven was plundered; East Haven, Fairfield, Norwalk, and Green's Farms, were wantonly burnt.

In an account of the devastations made by the English in this expedition, which was transmitted to congress, it appeared that at Fairfield there were burnt two houses of public worship, fifteen dwelling-houses, eleven barns, and several stores; at Norwalk, two houses of public worship, eighty dwelling-houses, sixty-seven barns, twenty-two stores, seventeen shops, four mills, and five vessels. In addition to this wanton destruction of property, va-

rious were the acts of brutality, rapine, and cruelty, committed on aged persons, women, and prisoners. At New Haven, an aged citizen, who labored under a natural inability of speech, had his tongue cut out by one of the royal army. At Fairfield, the deserted houses of the inhabitants were entered; desks, trunks, closets, and chests, were broken open, and robbed of every thing valuable. Women were insulted, abused, and threatened, while their apparel was taken from them. Even an infant was robbed of its clothes, while a bayonet was pointed at the breast of its mother.

About this time, Gen. Putnam, who had been stationed with a respectable force at Reading, in Connecticut, then on a visit to his out-post, at Horse Neck, was attacked by Gov. Tryon, with one thousand five hundred men. Putnam had only a picket of one hundred and fifty men, and two field-pieces, without horses or drag-ropes. He, however, placed his cannon on the high ground, near the meeting-house, and continued to pour in upon the advancing foe, until the enemy's horse appeared upon a charge. The general now hastily ordered his men to retreat to a neighboring swamp, inaccessible to horse, while he himself put spurs to his steed, and plunged down the precipice at the church.



This is so steep, as to have artificial stairs, composed of nearly *one hundred stone steps*, for the accommodation of worshippers ascending to the sanctuary. On the arrival of the dragoons at

the brow of the hill, they paused, thinking it too dangerous to follow the steps of the adventurous hero. Before any could go round the hill, and descend, Putnam had escaped, uninjured by the many balls which were fired at him in his descent; but one touched him, and that only passed through his hat. He proceeded to Stamford, where, having strengthened his picket with some militia, he boldly faced about, and pursued Gov. Tryon on his return.

69. The exertions of the Americans, during this campaign, were still more feeble than those of the enemy Scarcely an expedition was planned which merits any notice, and, with the exception of the reduction of Stony Point, forty miles north of New York, on the Hudson, scarcely any thing was accomplished of importance. The reduction of this place, July 15th, was one of the boldest enterprises which occurred in the history of the war.

At this time, Stony Point was in the condition of a real fortress; it was furnished with a select garrison of more than six hundred men, and had stores in abundance, and defensive preparations which were formidable.

Fortified as it was, Gen. Washington ventured an attempt to reduce it. The enterprise was committed to Gen. Wayne, who, with a strong detachment of active infantry, set out towards the place at noon. His march of fourteen miles, over high mountains, through deep morasses, and difficult defiles, was accomplished by eight o'clock in the evening.

At the distance of a mile from the Point, Gen. Wayne halted, and formed his men into two columns, putting himself at the head of the right. Both columns were directed to march in order and silence, with unloaded muskets and fixed bayonets. At midnight, they arrived under the walls of the fort. An unexpected obstacle now presented itself: the deep morass, which covered the works, was, at this time, overflowed by the tide. The English opened a tremendous fire of musketry and of cannon loaded with grape-shot: but neither the inundated morass, nor a double palisade, nor the storm of fire that was poured upon them, could arrest the impetuosity of the Americans: they opened their way with the bayonet, prostrated whatever opposed them, scaled the fort, and the two columns met in the centre of the works. The English lost upwards of six hundred men in killed and prisoners. The conquerors abstained from pillage, and from all disorder—a conduct the more worthy, as they had still present in mind the ravages and butcheries which their enemies had so recently committed in Virginia and Connecticut. Humanity

imparted new effulgence to the victory which valor had obtained.

70. Another expedition, planned and executed this year, entitled to some notice, was one under Gen. Sullivan, against the Six Nations, which, with the exception of the Oneidas, had been induced by the English to take up arms against America.

At the head of between four and five thousand men, Gen. Sullivan marched into the country, up the Susquehannah, and attacked the Indians, in well-constructed fortifications. The resistance of the savages was warlike. Being overpowered, however, they were obliged to flee. Gen. Sullivan, according to his instructions, proceeded to lay waste their country. Forty villages were consumed, and one hundred and sixty thousand bushels of corn were destroyed.

71. It has already been stated, that the campaign of 1779 was remarkable for the feeble exertions of the Americans. Among the causes which contributed to lessen their activity, the failure of the French fleet, in every scheme undertaken for their benefit, was no inconsiderable one. America had expected much from an alliance with France, and looked to the French fleet under D'Estaing to hasten the downfall of British power in the country. But when they perceived nothing equal to their expectation accomplished, they became despondent, and exertion was enfeebled.

But another, and a still more powerful cause of these feeble exertions, on the part of the Americans, was the daily depreciation of their bills of credit.

Bills of credit were first issued by congress in June, 1775, to the amount of two millions of dollars. At the expiration of eighteen months, twenty millions had been issued. By the year 1780, the amount in circulation was two hundred millions. For their redemption, the confederated colonies were pledged—each colony to provide means to pay its proportion by the year 1779.

At an early period, these bills began to depreciate. The progress of this depreciation is worthy of notice. Towards the close of 1777, the depreciation was two or three for one; in '78, five or six for one; in '79, twenty-seven or twenty-eight for one;

in '80, fifty or sixty for one, in the first four or five months. From this date, the circulation of these bills was limited; but where they passed, they soon depreciated to one hundred and fifty for one, and, finally, several hundreds for one.

Several causes contributed to sink the value of the continental currency. The excess of its quantity at first begat a natural depreciation. This was increased by the enemy, who counterfeited the bills, and spread their forgeries through the States. Public agents, who received a commission to the amount of their purchases, felt it to be their interest to give a high price for all commodities. These causes, co-operating with the decline of public confidence, and the return of more selfish feelings, rapidly increased the depreciation, until bills of credit, or what has been commonly called "continental currency," became of little or no value.

The evils which resulted from this system were immense. Under it, it became extremely difficult to raise an army, and to provide necessaries for its subsistence. At the same time, it originated discontents among the officers and soldiers, since their pay, in this depreciated currency, was inadequate to the support of their families at home. "Four months' pay of a private would not procure his family a single bushel of wheat; and the pay of a colonel would not purchase oats for his horse." Under circumstances like these, it reflects the highest honor upon Washington, that his wisdom and prudence should have been able to keep an army together.

72. Towards the close of the year 1779, Sir Henry Clinton, committing the English garrison of New York to Gen. Kniphausen, embarked with a force of between seven and eight thousand men, for the reduction of Charleston, South Carolina, which important object he accomplished on the 12th of May, 1780.

After a tempestuous voyage of some weeks, in which several transports were lost, the army arrived at Savannah, whence they sailed on their destined purpose. On the 2d of April, 1780, Gen. Clinton opened his batteries against Charleston. Gen. Lincoln, at this time, commanded the American forces of the south. Urged by the inhabitants, on the approach of the enemy, to continue in Charleston, and assist in repelling the attack, he consented to remain, and, with Gov. Rutledge, industriously forwarded preparations for defence.

Notwithstanding these preparations, the batteries of the enemy soon obtained a decided superiority over those of the town, and left but little reason to the besieged to hope that they should be able to defend the place. A council of war, held on the 21st,

agreed that a retreat would probably be impracticable, and advised that offers of capitulation should be made to Gen. Clinton, which might admit of the army's withdrawing, and afford security to the persons and property of the inhabitants.

On the proposal of these terms, they were rejected. Hostilities were now renewed by the garrison, and returned with unusual ardor by the British. On the 11th of May, finding the longer defence of the place impracticable, a number of citizens addressed Gen. Lincoln, advising him to capitulate. Acquiescing in the measure, painful as it was, Gen. Lincoln again presented terms of capitulation, which being accepted, the American army, amounting to 5000, together with the inhabitants of the place, and four hundred pieces of artillery, were surrendered to the British.

The loss on both sides, during the siege, was nearly equal Of the royal troops, seventy-six were killed, and one hundred and eighty-nine wounded. Of the Americans, eighty-nine were killed, and one hundred and forty wounded. By the articles of capitulation, the garrison was to march out of town, and to deposit their arms in front of the works; but, as a mark of humiliation, which, eighteen months afterwards, was remembered and retaliated on Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown, the drums were not to beat a British march, nor the colors to be uncased.

73. Shortly after the surrender of Charleston, Sir Henry Clinton, leaving four thousand men for the southern service, under Lord Cornwallis, returned to New York. British garrisons were now posted in different parts of the state of South Carolina, to awe the inhabitants, and to secure their submission to the British government.

The spirit of freedom, however, still remained with the people; nor was it easy to subdue that spirit, how much soever it might be temporarily repressed by royal and oppressive menace.

Notwithstanding the efforts of his majesty's servants to preserve quietness, the month of July did not pass by in peace. Gen. Sumpter, a man ardently attached to the cause of liberty, in several engagements in South Carolina, with the English and their partisans, gained great advantages over them, and, in one instance, reduced a regiment—the prince of Wales's—from two hundred and seventy-eight to nine.

While Sumpter was thus keeping up the spirits of the

people by a succession of gallant exploits, a respectable force was advancing through the Middle States, for the relief of their southern brethren.

74. The southern army, now placed under the command of Gates, the hero of Saratoga, Gen. Lincoln having been superseded, amounted to four thousand; but, of these, scarcely one thousand were regular troops, the rest consisting of militia, from North Carolina, Maryland, and Virginia.

As this army approached South Carolina, Lord Rawdon, who commanded on the frontier, under Lord Cornwallis, concentrated the royal forces, two thousand in number, at Camden, one hundred and twenty miles north-west from Charleston. Here Cornwallis, on learning the movements of the Americans, joined him.

On the morning of the 16th of August, the two armies met, and a severe and general action ensued, in which, through the unpardonable failure of the militia, the British gained a decided advantage.

At the first onset, a large body of the Virginia militia, under a charge of the British infantry with fixed bayonets, threw down their arms, and fled. A considerable part of the North Carolina militia followed their unworthy example. But the continental troops evinced the most unyielding firmness, and pressed forward with unusual ardor. Never did men acquit themselves more honorably. They submitted only when forsaken by their brethren in arms, and when overpowered by numbers.

In this battle, the brave Baron de Kalb, second in command, at the head of the Marylanders, fell, covered with wounds, which he survived only a few days. De Kalb was a German by birth, and had formerly served in the armies of the French. In consideration of his distinguished merit, as an officer and soldier, congress resolved that a monument should be erected to his memory at Annapolis.

The battle of Camden was exceedingly bloody. The field of battle, the road and swamps, for some distance, were covered with wounded and slain. The number of Americans killed, although not certain, probably amounted to between six and seven hundred, and the wounded and prisoners to one thousand three hundred, or one thousand four hundred. The British stated their loss to be only three hundred and twenty-four, in killed and wounded; but it was probably much greater.

75. The disaster of the army under Gen. Gates, overspread, at first, the face of American affairs, with a dismal gloom; but the day of prosperity to the United States began, as will appear in the sequel, from that moment, to dawn.

Their prospects brightened, while those of their enemies were obscured by disgrace, broken by defeat, and, at last, covered with ruin. Elated with their victories, the conquerors grew more insolent and rapacious, while the real friends of independence became resolute and determined.

76. While the campaign of 1780 was thus filled up with important events in the southern department, it passed away, in the Northern States, in successive disappointments, and reiterated distresses.

In June, a body of five thousand of the enemy, under Gen. Kniphausen, entered New Jersey, and, in addition to plundering the country, wantonly burnt several villages.

On the arrival of this body at Connecticut Farms, a small settlement, containing about a dozen houses and a church, they burnt the whole. At this place there resided a Presbyterian minister, by the name of Caldwell, who had taken a conspicuous part in the cause of freedom, and who had, of course, incurred the deep displeasure of Gen. Kniphausen. Supposing, however, that the general's resentment would be confined to him, and that his family would be safe, on the approach of the enemy, he hastily withdrew, leaving his wife and children to their mercy. Col. Drayton had previously withdrawn the militia from the place, that there might be no pretext for enormities; but the British soldiers, in the American war, did not wait for pretexts to be cruel. Mrs. Caldwell was shot in the midst of her children, by a villain, who walked up to the window of the room in which she was sitting, and took deliberate aim with his musket. This atrocious act was attempted to be excused as an *accident*, as a *random* shot; but the attempt at palliation served only to increase the crime.

77. Besides these predatory incursions, by which the inhabitants suffered alarm, distress, and destruction of property, they suffered greatly, also, from the constantly diminishing value of their paper currency, and from unfavorable crops.

The situation of Gen. Washington, often, during the war, embarrassing, had been distressing through the winter, in his encampment at Morristown. The cold was more intense than it had ever been known to be before in this climate, within the memory of the oldest inhabitant. The winter, to this day, bears the distinctive epithet of the *hard winter*. The army suffered extremely; and often had Washington the prospect before him of being obliged to break up his encampment, and disband his soldiers.

The return of spring brought little alleviation to their distress. Great disorder pervaded the departments for supplying the army. Abuses crept in, frauds were practised, and, notwithstanding the poverty of the country, economy, on the part of the commissioners, was exiled.

In May, a committee from congress visited the army, and reported to that body an account of the distresses and disorders conspicuously prevalent. In particular, they stated, "that the army was unpaid for five months; that it seldom had more than six days' provisions in advance, and was, on several occasions, for sundry successive days, without meat; that the medical department had neither sugar, coffee, tea, chocolate, wine, nor spirituous liquors of any kind; and that every department of the army was without money, and had not even the shadow of credit left."

78. But, under all this tide of evils, there appeared no disposition, in public bodies, to purchase their relief by concession. They seemed, on the contrary, to rise in the midst of their distresses, and to gain firmness and strength by the pressure of calamity.

79. Fortunately for the Americans, as it seemed, M. de Ternay arrived at Rhode Island, July 10th, from France, with a squadron of seven sail of the line, five frigates, and five smaller armed vessels, with several transports, and six thousand men, all under command of Lieutenant-General Count de Rochambeau. Great was the joy excited by this event, and high-raised expectations were indulged from the assistance of so powerful a force against the enemy. But the British fleet in our waters was still superior; and that of the French, and the French army, were, for a considerable time, incapacitated from co-operating with the Americans, by being blocked up at Rhode Island.

The arrival of the French fleet at Newport was greeted by the citizens with every demonstration of joy. The town was illu-

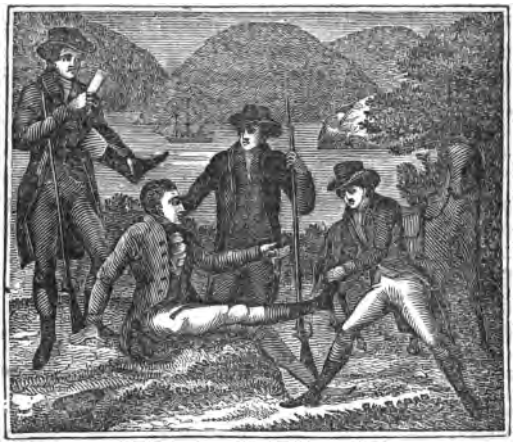
minated, and congratulatory addresses were exchanged. As a symbol of friendship and affection for the allies, Gen. Washington recommended to the American officers to wear black and white cockades, the ground to be of the first color, and the relief of the second.

80. The fortress of West Point, on the Hudson, sixty miles north of New York, and its importance to the Americans, have already been noticed. Of this fortress Gen. Arnold had solicited and obtained the command. Soon after assuming the command, Arnold entered into negotiations with Sir Henry Clinton, to make such a disposition of the forces in the fortress, as that the latter might easily take possession of it by surprise. Fortunately for America, this base plot was seasonably discovered to prevent the ruinous consequences that must have followed. Arnold, however, escaped to the enemy loaded with infamy and disgrace. Andre, the agent of the British in this negotiation, was taken, and justly expiated his crime on the gallows, as a spy.

Major Andre, at this time adjutant-general of the British army, was an officer extremely young, but high-minded, brave, and accomplished. He was transported, in a vessel called the Vulture, up the North river, as near to West Point as was practicable, without exciting suspicion. On the 21st of September, at night, a boat was sent from the shore, to bring him. On its return, Arnold met him at the beach, without the posts of either army. Their business was not finished till too near the dawn of day for Andre to return to the Vulture. He, therefore, lay concealed within the American lines. During the day, the Vulture found it necessary to change her position; and Andre, not being able now to get on board, was compelled to attempt his return to New York by land.

Having changed his military dress for a plain coat, and receiving a passport from Arnold, under the assumed name of John Anderson, he passed the guards and outposts, without suspicion. On his arrival at Tarrytown, a village thirty miles north of New York, in the vicinity of the first British posts, he was met by three militia soldiers—John Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Van Wert. He showed them his passport, and they suffered him to continue his route. Immediately after this, one of these three men, thinking that he perceived something singular in the person of the traveller, called him back. Andre asked them where they were from. "From down below," they replied, intending to say, from New York. Too frank to suspect a snare, Andre immediately answered, "And so am I."

Upon this, they arrested him, when he declared himself to be a British officer, and offered them his watch, and all the gold he had with him, to be released. These soldiers were poor and obscure, but they were not to be bribed. Resolutely refusing his offers, they conducted him to Lieutenant-Col. Jameson, their commanding officer.



Jameson injudiciously permitted Andre, still calling himself Anderson, to write to Arnold, who immediately escaped on board the Vulture, and took refuge in New York.

Washington, on his way to head-quarters, from Connecticut, where he had been to confer with Count de Rochambeau, providentially happened to be at West Point just at this time. After taking measures to insure the safety of the fort, he appointed a board, of which Gen. Greene was president, to decide upon the condition and punishment of Andre.

After a patient hearing of the case, September 29th, in which every feeling of kindness, liberality, and generous sympathy, was strongly evinced, the board, upon his own confession, unanimously pronounced Andre a *spy*, and declared that, agreeably to the laws and usages of nations, he ought to suffer death.

Major Andre had many friends in the American army; and even Washington would have spared him, had duty to his country permitted. Every possible effort was made by Sir Henry Clinton in his favor; but it was deemed important that the de-

cision of the board of war should be carried into execution. When Major Andre was apprized of the sentence of death, he made a last appeal, in a letter to Washington, that he might be shot, rather than die on a gibbet.

"Buoyed above the terrors of death," said he, "by the consciousness of a life devoted to honorable pursuits, and stained with no action that can give me remorse, I trust that the request I make to your excellency at this serious period, and which is to soften my last moments, will not be rejected. Sympathy towards a soldier will surely induce your excellency, and a military tribunal, to adapt the mode of my death to the feelings of a man of honor. Let me hope, sir, that, if aught in my character impresses you with esteem towards me, as a victim of policy and not of resentment, I shall experience the operation of those feelings in your breast, by being informed that I am not to die on a gibbet."

This letter of Andre roused the sympathies of Washington; and had *he* only been concerned, the prisoner would have been pardoned and released. But the interests of his country were at stake, and the sternness of justice demanded that private feelings should be sacrificed. Upon consulting his officers, on the propriety of Major Andre's request, to receive the death of a soldier,—to be shot,—it was deemed necessary to deny it, and to make him an example. On the 2d of October, this unfortunate young man expired on the gallows, while foes and friends universally lamented his untimely end.

As a reward to Paulding, Williams and Van Wert, for their virtuous and patriotic conduct, congress voted to each of them an annuity of two hundred dollars, and a silver medal, on one side of which was a shield with this inscription—"Fidelity,"—and on the other, the following motto—"*Vincit amor patriæ*"—the love of country conquers.

Arnold, the miserable wretch, whose machinations led to the melancholy fate Andre experienced, escaped to New York, where, as the price of his dishonor, he received the commission of *brigadier-general*, and the sum of *ten thousand pounds sterling*. This last boon was the grand secret of Arnold's fall from virtue; his vanity and extravagance had led him into expenses which it was neither in the power nor will of congress to support. He had involved himself in debt, from which he saw no hope of extricating himself; and his honor, therefore, was bartered for British gold.

81. Gen. Washington, having learned whither Arnold had fled, deemed it possible still to take him, and to bring him to the just reward of his treachery. To accomplish an object so desirable, and, at the same time, in so doing, to save Andre, Washington devised a plan,

which, although it ultimately failed, evinced the capacity of his mind, and his unwearied ardor for his country's good.

Having matured the plan, Washington sent to Major Lee to repair to head-quarters, at Tappan, on the Hudson. "I have sent for you," said Gen. Washington, "in the expectation that you have some one in your corps, who is willing to undertake a delicate and hazardous project. Whoever comes forward will confer great obligation upon me personally, and, in behalf of the United States, I will reward him amply. No time is to be lost: he must proceed, if possible, to-night. I intend to seize Arnold, and save Andre."

Major Lee named a sergeant-major of his corps, by the name of *Champe*, a native of Virginia, a man full of bone and muscle, with a countenance grave, thoughtful, and taciturn—of tried courage, and inflexible perseverance.

Champe was sent for by Major Lee, and the plan proposed. This was for him to desert—to escape to New York—to appear friendly to the enemy—to watch Arnold, and, upon some fit opportunity, with the assistance of some one whom Champe could trust, to seize him, and conduct him to a place on the river, appointed, where boats should be in readiness to bear them away.

Champe listened to the plan attentively, but, with the spirit of a man of honor and integrity, replied, "that it was not danger nor difficulty that deterred him from immediately accepting the proposal, but the *ignominy of desertion*, and the *hypocrisy of enlisting with the enemy!*"

To these objections Lee replied, that although he would appear to desert, yet, as he obeyed the call of his commander-in-chief, his departure could not be considered as criminal, and that, if he suffered in reputation for a time, the matter would one day be explained to his credit. As to the second objection, it was urged, that to bring such a man as Arnold to justice—loaded with guilt as he was—and to save Andre—so young, so accomplished, so beloved—to achieve so much good in the cause of his country—was more than sufficient to balance a wrong, existing only in appearance.

The objections of Champe were at length surmounted, and he accepted the service. It was now eleven o'clock at night. With his instructions in his pocket, the sergeant returned to camp, and, taking his cloak, valise, and orderly-book, drew his horse from the picket, and mounted, putting himself upon fortune.

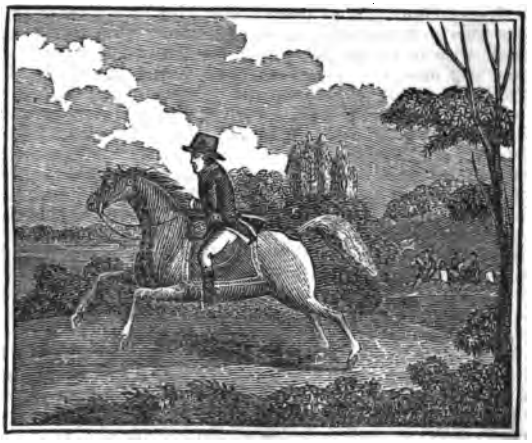
Scarcely had half an hour elapsed, before Capt. Carnes, the officer of the day, waited upon Lee, who was vainly attempting to rest, and informed him, that one of the patrol had fallen in with a dragoon, who, being challenged, put spurs to his horse and escaped. Lee, hoping to conceal the flight of Champe, or at least to delay pursuit, complained of fatigue, and told the

captain that the patrol had probably mistaken a countryman for a dragoon. Carnes, however, was not thus to be quieted; and he withdrew to assemble his corps. On examination, it was found that Champe was absent. The captain now returned, and acquainted Lee with the discovery, adding, that he had detached a party to pursue the deserter, and begged the major's written orders.

After making as much delay as practicable, without exciting suspicion, Lee delivers his orders—in which he directed the party to take Champe if possible. "Bring him alive," said he, "that he may suffer in the presence of the army; but kill him if he resists, or if he escapes after being taken."

A shower of rain fell soon after Champe's departure, which enabled the pursuing dragoons to take the trail of his horse, his shoes, in common with those of the horses of the army, being made in a peculiar form, and each having a private mark, which was to be seen in the path.

Middleton, the leader of the pursuing party, left the camp a few minutes past twelve, so that Champe had the start of but little more than an hour—a period by far shorter than had been contemplated. During the night, the dragoons were often delayed in the necessary halts to examine the road; but, on the coming of morning, the impression of the horse's shoes was so apparent, that they pressed on with rapidity. Some miles above Bergen, a village three miles north of New York, on the opposite side of



the Hudson, on ascending a hill, Champe was descried, not more than half a mile distant. Fortunately, Champe descried his

pursuers at the same moment, and, conjecturing their object, put spurs to his horse, with the hope of escape.

By taking a different road, Champe was, for a time, lost sight of; but, on approaching the river, he was again descried. Aware of his danger, he now lashed his valise, containing his clothes and orderly-book, to his shoulders, and prepared himself to plunge into the river, if necessary.

Swift was his flight, and swift the pursuit. Middleton and his party were within a few hundred yards, when Champe threw himself from his horse, and plunged into the river, calling aloud upon some British galleys, at no great distance, for help. A boat was instantly despatched to the sergeant's assistance, and a fire commenced upon the pursuers. Champe was taken on board, and soon after carried to New York, with a letter from the captain of the galley, stating the past scene, all of which he had witnessed.

The pursuers, having recovered the sergeant's horse and cloak, returned to camp, where they arrived about three o'clock the next day. On their appearance with the well-known horse, the soldiers made the air resound with acclamations that the scoundrel was killed. The agony of Lee, for a moment, was past description, lest the faithful, honorable, intrepid Champe had fallen. But the truth soon relieved his fears, and he repaired to Washington to impart to him the success, thus far, of his plan.

Soon after the arrival of Champe in New York, he was sent to Sir Henry Clinton, who treated him kindly, but detained him more than an hour in asking him questions, to answer some of which, without exciting suspicion, required all the art the sergeant was master of. He succeeded, however, and Sir Henry gave him a couple of guineas, and recommended him to Arnold, who was wishing to procure American recruits. Arnold received him kindly, and proposed to him to join his legion; Champe, however, expressed his wish to retire from war; but assured the general, that, if he should change his mind, he would enlist.

Champe found means to communicate to Lee an account of his adventures; but, unfortunately, he could not succeed in taking Arnold, as was wished, before the execution of Andre. Ten days before Champe brought his project to a conclusion, Lee received from him his final communication, appointing the third subsequent night for a party of dragoons to meet him at Hoboken, opposite New York, when he hoped to deliver Arnold to the officers.

Champe had enlisted into Arnold's legion, from which time he had every opportunity he could wish to attend to the habits of the general. He discovered that it was his custom to return home about twelve every night, and that, previously to going to bed, he always visited the garden. During this visit, the conspirators were to seize him, and, being prepared with a gag, they were to apply the same instantly.

Adjoining the house in which Arnold resided, and in which it was designed to seize and gag him, Champe had taken off several of the palings, and replaced them, so that, with ease, and without noise, he could readily open his way to the adjoining alley. Into this alley he intended to convey his prisoner, aided by his companion, one of two associates, who had been introduced by the friend to whom Champe had been originally made known by letter from the commander-in-chief, and with whose aid and counsel he had so far conducted the enterprise. His other associate was, with the boat, prepared at one of the wharves on the Hudson river to receive the party.

Champe and his friend intended to place themselves each under Arnold's shoulder, and thus to bear him through the most unfrequented alleys and streets to the boat, representing Arnold, in case of being questioned, as a drunken soldier, whom they were conveying to the guard-house.

When arrived at the boat, the difficulties would be all surmounted, there being no danger nor obstacle in passing to the Jersey shore. These particulars, as soon as made known to Lee, were communicated to the commander-in-chief, who was highly gratified with the much-desired intelligence. He desired Major Lee to meet Champe, and to take care that Arnold should not be hurt.

The day arrived, and Lee, with a party of accoutred horses, (one for Arnold, one for the sergeant, and the third for his associate, who was to assist in securing Arnold,) left the camp, never doubting the success of the enterprise, from the tenor of the last-received communication. The party reached Hoboken about midnight, where they were concealed in the adjoining wood—Lee, with three dragoons, stationing himself near the shore of the river. Hour after hour passed, but no boat approached.

At length the day broke, and the major retired to his party, and, with his led horses, returned to the camp, where he proceeded to head-quarters to inform the general of the much-lamented disappointment, as mortifying as inexplicable. Washington, having perused Champe's plan and communication, had indulged the presumption, that, at length, the object of his keen and constant pursuit was sure of execution, and did not dissemble the joy which such a conviction produced. He was chagrined at the issue, and apprehended that his faithful sergeant must have been detected in the last scene of his tedious and difficult enterprise.

In a few days, Lee received an anonymous letter from Champe's patron and friend, informing him that, on the day preceding the night fixed for the execution of the plot, Arnold had removed his quarters to another part of the town, to superintend the embarkation of troops, preparing, as was rumored, for an expedition to be directed by himself; and that the American legion, con-

sisting chiefly of American deserters, had been transferred from their barracks to one of the transports, it being apprehended that, if left on shore until the expedition was ready, many of them might desert.

Thus it happened that John Champe, instead of crossing the Hudson that night, was safely deposited on board one of the fleet of transports, from whence he never departed, until the troops under Arnold landed in Virginia. Nor was he able to escape from the British army, until after the junction of Lord Cornwallis at Petersburg, when he deserted; and, proceeding high up into Virginia, he passed into North Carolina, near the Saura towns, and, keeping in the friendly districts of that state, safely joined the army soon after it had passed the Congaree, in pursuit of Lord Rawdon.

His appearance excited extreme surprise among his former comrades, which was not a little increased, when they saw the cordial reception he met with from the late Major, now Lieut.-Col. Lee. His whole story was soon known to the corps, which reproduced the love and respect of officers and soldiers, heretofore invariably entertained for the sergeant, heightened by universal admiration of his late daring and arduous attempt.

Champe was introduced to Gen. Greene, who very cheerfully complied with the promise made by the commander-in-chief, so far as in his power; and, having provided the sergeant with a good horse and money for his journey, sent him to Gen. Washington, who munificently anticipated every desire of the sergeant, and presented him with a discharge from further service, lest he might, in the vicissitudes of war, fall into the hands of the enemy, when, if recognized, he was sure to die on a gibbet.

We shall only add, respecting the after life of this interesting adventurer, that when Gen. Washington was called by President Adams, in 1798, to the command of the army, prepared to defend the country against French hostility, he sent to Lieut.-Col. Lee, to inquire for Champe, being determined to bring him into the field at the head of a company of infantry. Lee sent to Loudon county, Virginia, where Champe settled after his discharge from the army; when he learned, that the gallant soldier had removed to Kentucky, where he soon after died.*

82. The year 1781 opened with an event extremely afflicting to Gen. Washington, and which, for a time, seriously endangered the American army. This was the revolt of the whole Pennsylvania line of troops, at Morristown, to the number of one thousand three hundred. The cause of this mutiny was want of pay, cloth-

* Lee's Memoirs.

ing, and provisions. Upon examination of the grievances of the troops, by a committee from congress, their complaints were considered to be founded in justice. Upon their being redressed, the troops whose time of service had expired, returned home, and the rest cheerfully repaired again to camp.

Gen. Wayne, who commanded these troops, and who was greatly respected by them, used every exertion to quiet them, but in vain. In the ardor of remonstrance with them, he cocked his pistol, and turned towards them. Instantly, a hundred bayonets were directed towards him, and the men cried out, "We love you, we respect you; but you are a dead man, if you fire. Do not mistake us; we are not going to the enemy. On the contrary, were they now to come out, you should see us fight under your orders with as much resolution and alacrity as ever."

Leaving the camp, the mutineers proceeded in a body to Princeton. Thither Sir Henry Clinton, who had heard of the revolt, sent agents to induce them to come over to the British, with the promise of large rewards.

But these soldiers loved their country's cause too well to listen to proposals so reproachful. They were suffering privations which could no longer be sustained; but they spurned with disdain the offer of the enemy. They also seized the agents of the British, and nobly delivered them up to Gen. Wayne, to be treated as spies.

83. In the midst of these troubles, arising from discontents of the troops, news arrived of great depredations in Virginia, by Arnold, who had left New York for the south, with one thousand six hundred men, and a number of armed vessels. Extensive outrages were committed by these troops in that part of the country. Large quantities of tobacco, salt, rum, &c., were destroyed. In this manner did Arnold show the change of spirit which had taken place in his breast, and his fidelity to his new engagements.

Upon receiving news of these depredations, at the request of Gen. Washington, a French squadron, from Rhode Island, was sent to cut off Arnold's retreat. Ten of his vessels were destroyed, and a forty-four gun ship was captured. Shortly after this, an engagement took place off the Capes of Virginia, between the French and English squadrons, which terminated so far to the advantage of the English, that Arnold was saved from

imminent danger of falling into the hands of his exasperated countrymen.

84. After the unfortunate battle at Camden, August 6th, 1780, congress thought proper to remove Gen. Gates, and to appoint Gen. Greene in his place. In December, 1780, Greene assumed the command. The army, at this time, was reduced to two thousand men, more than half of whom were militia, and all were miserably fed and clothed.

With this force, Gen. Greene took the field, against a superior regular force, flushed with successive victories through a whole campaign. Soon after taking the command, he divided his force, and, with one part, sent Gen. Morgan to the western extremity of South Carolina.

At this time, Lord Cornwallis was nearly prepared to invade North Carolina. Unwilling to leave such an enemy as Morgan in the rear, he despatched Col. Tarleton to engage Gen. Morgan, and "to push him to the utmost."

85. January 17th, 1781, these two detachments met, when was fought the spirited battle of the Cowpens, in which the American arms signally triumphed.

In this memorable battle, the British lost upwards of one hundred killed, among whom were ten commissioned officers, and two hundred wounded. More than five hundred prisoners fell into the hands of the Americans, besides two pieces of artillery, twelve standards, eight hundred muskets, thirty-five baggage wagons, and one hundred dragoon horses: the loss of the Americans was no more than twelve killed, and sixty wounded.

The victory of the Cowpens must be reckoned as one of the most brilliant achieved during the revolutionary war. The force of Morgan hardly amounted to five hundred, while that of his adversary exceeded one thousand. Morgan's brigade were principally militia, while Tarleton commanded the flower of the British army.

86. Upon receiving the intelligence of Tarleton's defeat, Cornwallis abandoned the invasion of North Carolina for the present, and marched in pursuit of Gen. Morgan.

Greene, suspecting his intentions, hastened with his army to join Morgan. This junction was at length effected, at Guilford Court-House, after a fatiguing march, in which Cornwallis nearly overtook him, and was prevented only by the obstruction of a river.

After his junction with Morgan, Gen. Greene, with his troops and baggage, crossed the river Dan, and entered Virginia, again narrowly escaping the British, who were in close pursuit.

87. Satisfied with having driven Greene from North Carolina, Cornwallis retired to Hillsborough, where, erecting the royal standard, he issued his proclamation, inviting the loyalists to join him. Many accepted his invitation. At the same time, he despatched Tarleton, with four hundred and fifty men, to secure the countenance of a body of loyalists, collected between the Hawe and Deep rivers.

88. Apprehensive of Tarleton's success, Gen. Greene, on the 18th of February, recrossed the Dan into Carolina, and despatched Generals Pickens and Lee to watch the movements of the enemy. These officers were unable to bring Tarleton to an engagement. Gen. Greene, having now received a reinforcement, making his army four thousand five hundred strong, concentrated his forces, and directed his march towards Guilford Court-House, whither Lord Cornwallis had retired.

Here, on the 8th of March, a general engagement took place, in which victory, after alternately passing to the banners of each army, finally decided in favor of the British.

The British loss, in this battle, exceeded five hundred in killed and wounded, among whom were several of the most distinguished officers. The American loss was about four hundred, in killed and wounded, of which more than three fourths fell upon the continentals. Though the numerical force of Gen. Greene nearly doubled that of Cornwallis, yet, when we consider the difference between these forces, the shameful conduct of the North Carolina militia, who fled at the first fire, the desertion of the second Maryland regiment, and that a body of reserve was not

brought into action, it will appear, that our numbers actually engaged but little exceeded that of the enemy.

89. Notwithstanding the issue of the above battle, Gen. Greene took the bold resolution of leading back his forces to South Carolina, and of attacking the enemy's strong post at Camden, in that state. Accordingly, on the 9th of April, he put his troops in motion, and, on the 20th, encamped at Logtown, within sight of the enemy's works. Lord Rawdon, at this time, held the command at Camden, and had a force of only nine hundred men. The army of Gen. Greene—a detachment having been made for another expedition under Gen. Lee—amounted scarcely to twelve hundred men of all classes.

On the 25th, Lord Rawdon drew out his forces, and the two armies engaged. For a season, victory seemed inclined to the Americans; but, in the issue, Gen. Greene found himself obliged to retreat.

The American loss, in killed, wounded, and missing, was two hundred and sixty-eight; the English loss was nearly equal. The failure of the victory, in this battle, was not attributable, as in some cases, to the flight of the militia, when danger had scarcely begun; but Gen. Greene experienced the mortification of seeing a regiment of veterans give way to an inferior force, when every circumstance was in their favor—the very regiment, too, which, at the battle of the Cowpens, behaved with such heroic bravery.

90. Although the British arms gained the victory of Camden, the result of the whole was favorable to the American cause. Gen. Lee, with a detachment despatched for that purpose, while Greene was marching against Camden, took possession of an important post at Mottes, near the confluence of the Congaree and Santee rivers. This auspicious event was followed by the evacuation of Camden by Lord Rawdon, and of the whole line of British posts, with the exception of Ninety-Six and Charleston.

91. Ninety-Six, one hundred and forty-seven miles north-west from Charleston, was garrisoned by five hundred and sixty men. Against this post, after the battle

of Camden, Gen. Greene took up his march, and, on the 22d of May, sat down before it. Soon after the siege of it had been commenced, intelligence arrived that Lord Rawdon had been reinforced by troops from Ireland, and was on his march, with two thousand men, for its relief. Greene now determined upon an assault; but in this he failed, with a loss of one hundred and fifty men.

Soon after his arrival at Ninety-Six, Lord Rawdon deemed it expedient to evacuate this post. Retiring himself to Charleston, his army encamped at the Eutaw Springs, forty miles from Charleston.

92. Gen. Greene, having retired to the high hills of Santee, to spend the hot and sickly season, in September approached the enemy at the Eutaw Springs. On the morning of the 8th, he advanced upon him, and the battle between the two armies became general. The contest was sustained with equal bravery on both sides; victory seemed to decide in favor of neither.

The British lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, about one thousand one hundred. The loss of the Americans was five hundred and fifty-five.

93. The battle of the Eutaw Springs was the last general action that took place in South Carolina, and nearly finished the war in that quarter. The enemy now retired to Charleston.

Thus closed the campaign of 1781, in South Carolina. Few commanders have ever had greater difficulties to encounter than Gen. Greene; and few have ever, with the same means, accomplished so much. Though never so decisively victorious, yet the battles which he fought, either from necessity or choice, were always so well managed as to result to his advantage.

Not unmindful of his eminent services, congress presented him with a British standard, and a gold medal, emblematical of the action at the Eutaw Springs, which restored a sister state to the American Union.

94. After the battle of Guilford, between Greene and Cornwallis, noticed above, the latter, leaving South Carolina in charge of Lord Rawdon, commenced his march towards Petersburg, in Virginia, where he arrived

on the 20th of May. Having received several reinforcements, he found himself with an army of eight thousand, and indulged the pleasing anticipations that Virginia would soon be made to yield to his arms.

Early in the spring, Gen. Washington had detached the Marquis de Lafayette, with three thousand men, to co-operate with the French fleet, in Virginia, in the capture of Arnold, who was committing depredations in that state. On the failure of this expedition, Lafayette marched back as far as the head of Elk river. Here he received orders to return to Virginia, to oppose the British. On his return, hearing of the advance of Cornwallis towards Petersburg, twenty miles below Richmond, he hastened his march, to prevent, if possible, the junction of Cornwallis with a reinforcement under Gen. Phillips. In this, however, he failed.

The junction being effected at Petersburg, Cornwallis moved towards James river, which he crossed, with the intention of forcing the marquis to a battle.

Prudence forbade the marquis risking an engagement with an enemy of more than twice his force. He therefore retreated, and, notwithstanding the uncommon efforts of his lordship to prevent it, he effected a junction with Gen. Wayne, who had been despatched by Washington, with eight hundred Pennsylvania militia, to his assistance. After this reinforcement, the disproportion between himself and his adversary was still too great to permit him to think of battle. He continued his retreat, therefore, displaying, in all his manœuvres, the highest prudence.

95. While these things were transpiring in Virginia, matters of high moment seemed to be in agitation in the north, which, not long after, were fully developed.

Early in May, 1781, a plan of the whole campaign had been arranged by Gen. Washington, in consultation, at Wethersfield, Connecticut, with Generals Knox and Du Portail, on the part of the Americans, and Count de Rochambeau, on the part of France. The grand project of the season was to lay siege to New York, in concert with a French fleet, expected on the coast in August.

In the prosecution of this plan, the French troops were marched from Rhode Island, and joined Gen. Washington, who had concentrated his forces at Kingsbridge, fifteen miles above New York. All things were preparing for a vigorous siege, and te-

wards this strongest hold of the enemy, the eyes of all were intently directed.

In this posture of things, letters addressed to Gen. Washington informed him that the expected French fleet, under the Count de Grasse, would soon arrive in the Chesapeake, and that this, instead of New York, was the place of its destination.

96. The intelligence that the co-operation of the above fleet was not to be expected, with other circumstances, induced Washington to change the plan of operations, and to direct his attention to Cornwallis, who, from pursuing Lafayette, had retired to Yorktown, near the mouth of York river, and had fortified that place. With this object in view, on the 19th of July, he drew off his forces from New York, and, having hastened the removal of his troops from various points, on the 30th of Sept., the combined armies, amounting to twelve thousand, moved upon Yorktown and Gloucester, while the Count de Grasse, with his fleet, proceeded up to the mouth of York river, to prevent Cornwallis either from retreating, or receiving assistance.

Yorktown is a small village on the south side of York river, whose southern banks are high, and in whose waters a ship of the line may ride in safety. Gloucester Point is a piece of land on the opposite shore, projecting far into the river. Both these posts were occupied by Cornwallis—the main body of the army being at York, under the immediate command of his lordship, and a detachment of six hundred at Gloucester Point, under Lieut. Col. Tarleton.

No movement, during the war, was more felicitously accomplished, than the above of Washington, in withdrawing his troops from New York, while the British general was kept in utter ignorance of his object. The latter, supposing it a feint, to draw him to a general engagement, remained at his ease; nor were his suspicions awakened, until Washington and his troops were some distance on their way towards Virginia.

97. On the 6th of October, Washington's heavy ordnance, &c., arrived, and the siege was commenced in form. Seldom, if ever, during the revolutionary struggle, did the American commander-in-chief, or his troops, appear before the enemy with more cool determination, or pursue him with more persevering ardor, than at the

siege of Yorktown. With the fall of Cornwallis, it was perceived that the hopes of Great Britain, successfully to maintain the contest, must nearly expire: with this in prospect, there was no wavering of purpose, and no intermission of toil.

On the 19th of October, the memorable victory over Cornwallis was achieved, and his whole army was surrendered, amounting to more than seven thousand prisoners of war, together with a park of artillery of one hundred and sixty pieces, the greater part of which were brass

Articles of capitulation being mutually signed and ratified Gen. Lincoln was appointed, by the commander-in-chief, to receive the submission of the royal army, in the same manner in which, eighteen months before, Cornwallis had received that of the Americans at Charleston.

The spectacle is represented as having been impressive and affecting. The road through which the captive army marched was lined with spectators, French and American. On one side the commander-in-chief, surrounded with his suite, and the American staff, took his station; on the other side, opposite to him, was the Count de Rochambeau, in the like manner attended.

The captive army approached, moving slowly in column, with grace and precision. Universal silence was observed amidst the vast concourse, and the utmost decency prevailed; exhibiting an awful sense of the vicissitudes of human life, mingled with commiseration for the unhappy.

Every eye was now turned, searching for the British commander-in-chief, anxious to look at the man heretofore so much the object of their dread. All were disappointed. Cornwallis, unable to bear up against the humiliation of marching at the head of his garrison, constituted Gen. O'Hara his representative, on the occasion.

The post of Gloucester, falling with that of York, was delivered up the same day, by Lieut. Col. Tarleton.

At the termination of the siege, the besieging army amounted to sixteen thousand. The British force was put down at seven thousand one hundred and seven, of which only four thousand and seven rank and file are stated to have been fit for duty.

98. Five days after the surrender of Cornwallis, Sir Henry Clinton made his appearance off the capes of Virginia, with a reinforcement of seven thousand men; but, receiving intelligence of his lordship's fate, he returned to New York.

Cornwallis, in his despatches to Sir Henry, more than hinted, that his fall had been produced by a too firm reliance on promises, that no pains were taken to fulfil. Clinton had promised Cornwallis that this auxiliary force should leave New York on the 5th of October; but, for reasons never explained, it did not sail until the 19th, the very day that decided the fate of the army.

99. Nothing could exceed the joy of the American people at this great and important victory over Lord Cornwallis. Exultation broke forth from one extremity of the country to the other. The remembrance of the past gave place in all minds to the most brilliant hopes. It was confidently anticipated, that the affair of Yorktown would rapidly hasten the acknowledgment of American independence—an event for which the people had been toiling and bleeding through so many campaigns.

In all parts of the United States, solemn festivals and rejoicings celebrated the triumph of American fortune. The names of Washington, Rochambeau, De Grasse, and Lafayette, resounded every where. To the unanimous acclaim of the people, congress joined the authority of its resolves. It addressed thanks to the generals, officers, and soldiers—presented British colors—ordered the erection of a marble column—and went into procession to church, to render public thanksgiving to God for the recent victory. The 30th of December was appointed as a day of national thanksgiving.

100. While the combined armies were advancing to the siege of Yorktown, an excursion was made from New York, by Gen. Arnold, against New London, in his *native state.* The object of this expedition seems to have been, to draw away a part of the American forces; Sir Henry Clinton knowing but too well, that, if they were left at liberty to push the siege of Yorktown, the blockaded army must inevitably surrender.

This expedition was signalized by the greatest atrocities. Fort Trumbull, on the west, and Fort Griswold, on the east side of the river Thames, below New London, were taken, and the greater part of that town was burnt.

At Fort Trumbull, little or no resistance was made; but Fort Griswold was defended for a time, with great bravery and resolution. After the fort was carried, a British officer, entering, inquired who commanded. Col. Ledyard answered, "I did, but you do now"—at the same time presenting his sword. The officer immediately plunged the sword into his bosom. A general massacre now took place, as well of those who surrendered as of those who resisted, which continued until nearly all the garrison were either killed or wounded. Sixty dwelling houses, and eighty-four stores, in New London, were reduced to ashes.

101. The fall of Cornwallis may be considered as substantially closing the war. A few posts of importance were still held by the British—New York, Charleston, and Savannah—but all other parts of the country, which they had possessed, were recovered into the power of congress. A few skirmishes alone indicated the continuance of war.

A part of the French army, soon after the capture of Cornwallis, re-embarked, and Count de Grasse sailed for the West Indies. Count Rochambeau cantoned his army for the winter, 1782, in Virginia, and the main body of the Americans returned, by the way of the Chesapeake, to their former position on the Hudson.

102. From the 12th of December, 1781, to the 4th of March, 1782, motion after motion was made in the British parliament, for putting an end to the war in America. On this latter day, the commons resolved, "that the house would consider as enemies to his majesty, and to the country, all those who should advise, or attempt, the further prosecution of offensive war, on the continent of North America."

103. On the same day, the command of his majesty's forces in America was taken from Sir Henry Clinton, and given to Sir Guy Carleton, who was instructed to promote the wishes of Great Britain, for an accommodation with the United States.

In accordance with these instructions, Sir Guy Carleton endeavored to open a correspondence with congress, and with this view sent to Gen. Washington to solicit a passport for his secretary. But this was refused, since

congress would enter into no negotiations but in concert with his most Christian Majesty.

104. The French court, on receiving intelligence of the surrender of Cornwallis, pressed upon congress the appointment of commissioners for negotiating peace with Great Britain. Accordingly, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, and Henry Laurens, were appointed. These commissioners met Mr. Fitzherbert and Mr. Oswald, on the part of Great Britain, at Paris, and provisional articles of peace between the two countries were signed, November 30th, 1782. The definitive treaty was signed on the 30th of September, 1783.

Although the definitive treaty was not signed until September, there had been no act of hostility between the two armies, and a state of peace had actually existed from the commencement of the year 1783. A formal proclamation of the cessation of hostilities was made through the army on the 19th of April; Savannah was evacuated in July, New York in November, and Charleston in the following month.

105. The third of November was fixed upon, by congress, for disbanding the army of the United States. On the day previous, Washington issued his farewell orders, and bid an affectionate adieu to the soldiers, who had fought and bled by his side.

After mentioning the trying times through which he had passed, and the unexampled patience which, under every circumstance of suffering, his army had evinced, he passed to the glorious prospects opening before them and their country, and then bade them adieu in the following words: "Being now to conclude these his last public orders, to take his ultimate leave, in a short time, of the military character, and to bid a final adieu to the armies he has so long had the honor to command, he can only again offer in their behalf, his recommendations to their grateful country, and his prayer to the God of armies.

"May ample justice be done them here, and may the choicest favor, both here and hereafter, attend those, who, under the divine auspices, have secured innumerable blessings for others! With these wishes, and this benediction, the commander-in-chief is about to retire from service. The curtain of separation will soon be drawn, and the military scene to him will be closed forever."

106. Soon after taking leave of the army, Gen. Washington was called to the still more painful hour of separation from his officers, greatly endeared to him by a long series of common sufferings and dangers.

The officers having previously assembled in New York for the purpose, Gen. Washington now joined them, and, calling for a glass of wine, thus addressed them :—"With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take my leave of you. I most devoutly wish that your latter days may be as prosperous and happy as your former ones have been glorious and honorable."

Having thus affectionately addressed them, he now took each by the hand and bade him farewell. Followed by them to the side of the Hudson, he entered a barge, and, while tears rolled down his cheeks, he turned towards the companions of his glory, and bade them a silent adieu.

107. December 23, Washington appeared in the hall of congress, and resigned to them the commission which they had given him, as commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States.

After having spoken of the accomplishment of his wishes and exertions, in the independence of his country, and commended his officers and soldiers to congress, he concluded as follows :—

"I consider it an indispensable duty to close the last solemn act of my official life, by commending the interests of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, and those who have the superintendence of them to his holy keeping.

"Having now finished the work assigned me, I retire from the great theatre of action ; and, bidding an affectionate farewell to this august body, under whose orders I have long acted, I here offer my commission, and take my leave of all the employments of public life."

108. Upon accepting his commission, congress, through their president, expressed, in glowing language, to Washington, their high sense of his wisdom and energy in conducting the war to so happy a termination, and invoked the choicest blessings upon his future life.

President Mifflin concluded as follows :—"We join you in commending the interest of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, beseeching HIM to dispose the hearts and minds of its citizens to improve the opportunity afforded them of becoming a happy and respectable nation. And for YOU, we address to HIM our earnest prayers, that a life so beloved may be

fostered with all His care; that your days may be as happy as they have been illustrious; and that He will finally give you that reward which this world cannot give."

A profound silence now pervaded the assembly. The grandeur of the scene, the recollection of the past, the felicity of the present, and the hopes of the future, crowded fast upon all, while they united in invoking blessings upon the man, who, under God, had achieved so much, and who now, in the character of a mere *citizen*, was hastening to a long-desired repose at his seat, at Mount Vernon, in Virginia.

NOTES.

109. MANNERS. At the commencement of the revolution, the colonists of America were a mass of husbandmen, merchants, mechanics, and fishermen, who were occupied in the ordinary avocations of their respective callings, and were entitled to the appellation of a sober, honest, and industrious set of people. Being, however, under the control of a country whose jealousies were early and strongly enlisted against them, and which, therefore, was eager to repress every attempt, on their part, to rise, they had comparatively little scope or encouragement for exertion and enterprise.

But, when the struggle for independence began, the case was altered. New fields for exertion were opened, and new and still stronger impulses actuated their bosoms. A great change was suddenly wrought in the American people, and a vast expansion of character took place. Those who were before only known in the humble sphere of peaceful occupation, soon shone forth in the cabinet or in the field, fully qualified to cope with the trained generals and statesmen of Europe.

But, although the revolution caused such an expansion of character in the American people, and called forth the most striking patriotism among all classes, it introduced, at the same time, greater looseness of manners and

morals. An army always carries deep vices in its train, and communicates its corruption to society around it. Besides this, the failure of public credit so far put it out of the power of individuals to perform private engagements, that the breach of them became common, and, at length, was scarcely disgraceful. That high sense of integrity, which had extensively existed before, was thus exchanged for more loose and slippery notions of honesty and honor.

"On the whole," says Dr. Ramsay, who wrote soon after the close of this period, "the literary, political and military talents of the United States have been improved by the revolution, but their *moral character* is inferior to what it formerly was. So great is the change for the worse," continues he, "that the friends of public order are loudly called upon to exert their utmost abilities, in extirpating the vicious principles and habits hich have taken deep root during the late convulsions."

110. RELIGION. During the revolution, the colonies being all united in one cause—a congress being assembled from all parts of America—and more frequent intercourse between different parts of the country being promoted by the shifting of the armies—local prejudices and sectarian asperities were obliterated; religious controversy was suspended; and bigotry softened. That spirit of intolerance, which had marked some portions of the country, was nearly done away.

But, for these advantages, the revolution brought with it great disadvantages to religion in general. The atheistical philosophy, which had been spread over France, and which would involve the whole subject of religion in the gloomy mists of scepticism—which acknowledges no distinction between right and wrong, and considers a future existence as a dream, that may or may not be realized—was thickly sown in the American army, by the French; and, uniting with the infidelity which before had taken root in the country, produced a serious declension in the tone of religious feelings among the American people.

In addition to this, religious institutions, during the war, were much neglected; churches were demolished, or converted into barracks; public worship was often suspended; and the clergy suffered severely from the reduction of their salaries, caused by the depreciation of the circulating medium.

111. TRADE AND COMMERCE. During the war of the revolution, the commerce of the United States was interrupted, not only with Great Britain, but, in a great measure, with the rest of the world. The greater part of the shipping, belonging to the country, was destroyed by the enemy, or perished by a natural process of decay.

Our coasts were so lined with British cruisers as to render navigation too hazardous to be pursued to any considerable extent. Some privateers, however, were fitted out, which succeeded in capturing several valuable prizes, on board of which were arms, and other munitions of war. During the last three years of the war, an illicit trade to Spanish America was carried on; but it was extremely limited.

112. AGRICULTURE. Agriculture was greatly interrupted, during this period, by the withdrawing of laborers to the camp, by the want of encouragement furnished by exportation, and by the distractions which disturbed all the occupations of society.

The army often suffered for the means of subsistence, and the officers were sometimes forced to compel the inhabitants to furnish the soldiers food, in sufficient quantities to prevent their suffering.

113. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. The trade with England, during this period, being interrupted by the war, the people of the United States were compelled to manufacture for themselves. Encouragement was given to all necessary manufactures, and the zeal, ingenuity and industry of the people, furnished the country with articles of prime necessity, and, in a measure, supplied the place of a foreign market. Such was the progress in arts and manufactures, during the period, that, after the return of peace, when an uninterrupted intercourse with England was again opened, some articles, which before were imported altogether, were found so

well and so abundantly manufactured at home, that their importation was stopped.

114. POPULATION. The increase of the people of the United States, during this period, was small. Few, if any, emigrants arrived in the country. Many of the inhabitants were slain in battle, and thousands of that class called *tories*, left the land, who never returned. Perhaps we may fairly estimate the inhabitants of the country, about the close of this period, 1784, at three millions two hundred and fifty thousand.

115. EDUCATION. The interests of education suffered, in common with other kindred interests, during the war. In several colleges, the course of instruction was, for a season, suspended; the hall was exchanged by the students for the camp, and the gown for the sword and epaulet.

Towards the conclusion of the war, two colleges were founded; one in Maryland, in 1782, by the name of Washington college; the other, in 1783, in Pennsylvania, which received the name of Dickinson college. The writer whom we have quoted above, estimates the whole number of colleges and academies in the United States, at the close of this period, at thirty-six.

REFLECTIONS.

116. The American revolution is doubtless the most interesting event in the pages of modern history. Changes equally great, and convulsions equally violent, have often taken place; and the history of man tells us of many instances in which oppression, urged beyond endurance, has called forth the spirit of successful and triumphant resistance. But, in the event before us, we see feeble colonies, without an army, without a navy, without an established government, without a revenue, without munitions of war, without fortifications, boldly stepping forth to meet the veteran armies of a proud, powerful, and vindictive enemy. We see these colonies, amidst want, poverty, and misfortune, supported by the pervading spirit of liberty, and guided by the good hand of Heaven, for nearly eight years sustaining the weight of a cruel conflict, upon their own soil. We see them at length victorious; their enemies sullenly retire from their shores, and these humble colonies stand forth enrolled on the page of history, a free, sovereign, and independent nation.

Nor is this all. We see a wise government springing up from the blood that was spilt, and, down to our own time, shedding the choicest political blessings upon several millions of people.

What nation can dwell with more just satisfaction upon its annals than ours? Almost all others trace their foundation to some ambitious and bloody conqueror, who sought only by enslaving others to aggrandize himself. Our independence was *won by the people*, who fought for the natural rights of man. Other nations have left their annals stained with the crimes of their people and princes; ours shines with the glowing traces of patriotism, constancy, and courage, amidst every rank of life and every grade of office.

Whenever we advert to this portion of our history, and review it, as we well may, with patriotic interest, let us not forget the gratitude we owe, as well to those who "fought, and bled, and died" for us, as to that benignant Providence, who stayed the proud waves of British tyranny.

Let us also gather political wisdom from the American revolution. It has taught the world, emphatically, that oppression tends to weaken and destroy the power of the oppressor; that a people united in the cause of liberty are invincible by those who would enslave them; and that Heaven will ever frown upon the cause of injustice, and ultimately grant success to those who oppose it.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD VI.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE FORMATION AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION.

Extending from the Disbanding of the Army, 1783, *to the Inauguration of George Washington, as President of the United States, under the Federal Constitution*, 1789.

Sec. 1. During the war of the revolution, the American people had been looking forward to a state of peace, independence and self-government, as almost necessarily ensuring every possible blessing. A short time after its termination, however, it was apparent that something not yet possessed was necessary, to realize the private and public prosperity that had been anticipated. After a short struggle so to administer the existing system of government, as to make it competent to the great objects for which it was instituted, it became obvious that some other system must be substituted, or a general wreck of all that had been gained would ensue.

At the close of the war, the debts of the Union were computed to amount to more than forty millions of dollars. These debts were of two kinds, foreign and domestic. The foreign debt amounted to near eight millions, and was due to individuals in France, to the crown of France, to lenders in Holland and Spain. The domestic debt was due to the officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army and others. By the articles of confederation and union between the states, congress had power to declare war,

and borrow money, or issue bills of credit, to carry it on; but it had not the ability to discharge the debts incurred by the war. Congress could recommend to the individual states to raise money for that purpose; but at this point its power terminated.

Soon after the war, the attention of that body was drawn to this subject; the payment of the national debt being a matter of justice to creditors, as well as of vital importance to the preservation of the union. It was proposed, therefore, to the states, that they should grant to congress the power of laying a *duty of five per cent.* on all foreign goods, which should be imported, and that the revenue arising thence should be applied to the diminution of the public debt, until it should be extinguished.

To this proposal, most of the states assented, and passed an act granting the power. But Rhode Island, apprehensive that such a grant would lessen the advantages of her trade, declined passing an act for that purpose. Subsequently, New York joined in the opposition, and rendered all prospect of raising a revenue, in this way, hopeless.

The consequence was, that even the interest of the public debt remained unpaid. Certificates of public debt lost their credit, and many of the officers and soldiers of the late army, who were poor, were compelled to sell these certificates at excessive reductions.

While the friends of the national government were making unavailing efforts to fix upon a permanent revenue, which might enable it to preserve the national faith, other causes, besides the loss of confidence in the confederation, concurred to hasten a radical change in the political system of the United States.

Among these causes, the principal was the evil resulting from the restrictions of Great Britain, laid on the trade of the United States with the West Indies; the ports of those islands being shut against the vessels of the United States, and enormous duties imposed on our most valuable exports.

Had congress possessed the power, a remedy might have been found, in passing similar acts against Great Britain; but this power had not been delegated by the states to the congress. That thirteen independent sovereignties, always jealous of one another, would separately concur in any proper measures to compel Great Britain to relax, was not to be expected. The importance of an enlargement of the powers of congress was thus rendered still more obvious.

2. During the enfeebled and disorganized state of the general government, which followed the war, attempts were made, in some of the states, to maintain their credit, and to satisfy their creditors. The attempt of Massachusetts to effect this, by means of a heavy tax,

produced an open insurrection among the people. In some parts of the state, the people convened in tumultuous assemblies, obstructed the sitting of courts, and, finally, took arms in opposition to the laws of the state. The prudent measures of Gov. Bowdoin and his council, seconded by an armed force, under Gen. Lincoln, in the winter of 1786, gradually subdued the spirit of opposition, and restored the authority of the laws.

This rising of the people of Massachusetts is usually styled *Shays' insurrection*, from one Daniel Shays, a captain in the revolutionary army, who headed the insurgents. In August, 1786, fifteen hundred insurgents assembled at Northampton, took possession of the court-house, and prevented the session of the court. Similar outrages occurred at Worcester, Concord, Taunton, and Springfield. In New Hampshire, also, a body of men arose in September, and surrounding the general assembly, sitting at Exeter, held them prisoners for several hours.

In this state of civil commotion, a body of troops, to the number of four thousand, was ordered out, by Massachusetts, to support the judicial courts, and suppress the insurrection. This force was put under the command of Gen. Lincoln. Another body of troops was collected by Gen. Shepherd, near Springfield. After some skirmishing, the insurgents were dispersed; several were taken prisoners and condemned, but were ultimately pardoned.

3. The period seemed to have arrived, when it was to be decided whether the general government was to be supported or abandoned—whether the glorious objects of the revolutionary struggle should be realized or lost.

In January, 1786, the legislature of Virginia adopted a resolution to appoint commissioners, who were to meet such others as might be appointed by the other states, to take into consideration the subject of trade, and to provide for a uniform system of commercial relations, &c. This resolution ultimately led to a proposition for a general convention to consider the state of the Union.

But five states were represented in the convention proposed by Virginia, which met at Annapolis. In consideration of the small number of states represented, the convention, without coming to any specific resolution on the particular subjects referred to them, ad-

journed to meet in Philadelphia, the succeeding May. Previously to adjournment, it recommended to the several states, to appoint delegates for that meeting, and to give them *power to revise the federal system.*

4. Agreeably to the above recommendation, the several states of the Union, excepting Rhode Island, appointed commissioners, who convened at Philadelphia, and proceeded to the important business of their appointment.

Of this body, consisting of fifty-five members, George Washington, one of the delegates from Virginia, was unanimously elected president. The convention proceeded with closed doors to discuss the interesting subjects submitted to their consideration.

5. The first and most important question which presented itself to this convention, was, whether the then present system should be amended, or a new one formed By the resolve of congress, as well as the instructions of some of the states, they were met "for the sole and express purpose of revising the articles of confederation." The defects of the old government were so radical and apparent, that it was determined by a majority to form an entire new one.

6. On the great principles, which should form the basis of the constitution, not much difference of opinion prevailed. But, in reducing those principles to practical details, less harmony was to be expected. Such, indeed, was the difference of opinion, that, more than once, there was reason to fear, that the convention would rise without effecting the object for which it was formed.

The convention having decided that the legislative branch of the government should consist of a house of representatives and a senate, after a long debate it was agreed, that the right of each state to vote in the *house* should be in proportion to the whole number of its white, or other free citizens, and three fifths of all other persons.

In the *senate*, the small states demanded an equal vote with the large states. This the latter refused; and on this point the convention came well nigh dissolving.

At this interesting and solemn crisis, Dr. Franklin rose, and, addressing himself to the president, among other things, said "Sir, how has it happened, that while groping so long in the dark—divided in our opinions, and now ready to separate, without accomplishing the great objects of our meeting—that we have not hitherto once thought of humbly applying to the *Father of Lights* to illuminate our understandings? In the beginning of the contest with Britain, when we were sensible of danger, we had daily prayer in this room for divine protection. Our prayers, sir, were heard; and they were graciously answered. All of us who were engaged in the struggle, must have observed frequent instances of a superintending Providence in our favor. To that kind Providence we owe this happy opportunity of consulting, in peace, on the means of establishing our future national felicity. And have we now forgotten that powerful friend? or do we imagine that we no longer need its assistance? I have lived, sir, a long time; and the longer I live, the more convincing proof I see of this truth, that *God governs the affairs of men.* And if a sparrow cannot fall to the ground without his notice, is it probable that an empire can rise without his aid? We have been assured, sir, in the sacred writings, that except the 'Lord build the house, they labor in vain that build it.' I firmly believe this; and I also believe that, without his concurring aid, we shall succeed in this political building no better than the builders of Babel; we shall be divided by our little partial local interests; our projects will be confounded, and we ourselves shall become a reproach and a by-word to future ages. And what is worse, mankind may hereafter, from this important instance, despair of establishing government by human wisdom, and leave it to chance, war or conquest.

"I therefore beg leave to move, that henceforth prayers, imploring the assistance of Heaven, and its blessings on our deliberations, be held in this assembly every morning before we proceed to business; and that one or more of the clergy of this city be requested to officiate in that service."

This suggestion, it need scarcely be said, was favorably received by the convention, and from that time the guidance of divine wisdom was daily sought. As might be expected, greater harmony prevailed—the spirit of concession pervaded the convention—a motion was made for the appointment of a committee, to take into consideration both branches of the legislature. This motion prevailing, a committee was accordingly chosen by ballot, consisting of one from each state; and the convention adjourned for three days.

On the meeting of the convention, after this adjournment, the above committee reported to the satisfaction of all, and the body proceeded to organize the legislative, and other departments of the government.

7. At length, on the 17th of September, 1787, the convention, having adopted and signed the federal constitution, presented it to congress, which body soon after sent it to the several states for their consideration.

An abstract of this constitution, with its several subsequent amendments, follows: it is extracted from Mr. Webster's Elements of Useful Knowledge.

Of the Legislature. "The legislative power of the United States is vested in a congress, consisting of two houses or branches, a senate, and a house of representatives. The members of the house of representatives are chosen once in two years, by the persons who are qualified to vote for members of the most numerous branches of the legislature, in each state. To be entitled to a seat in this house, a person must have attained to the age of twenty-five years, been a citizen of the United States for seven years, and be an inhabitant of the state in which he is chosen."

Of the Senate. "The senate consists of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature for six years. The senate is divided into three classes, the seats of one of which are vacated every second year. If a vacancy happens during the recess of the legislature, the executive of the state makes a temporary appointment of a senator, until the next meeting of the legislature. A senator must have attained to the age of thirty years, been a citizen of the United States nine years, and be an inhabitant of the state for which he is chosen."

Of the Powers of the two Houses. "The house of representatives choose their own speaker and other officers, and have the exclusive power of impeaching public officers, and originating bills for raising a revenue. The vice-president of the United States is president of the senate; but the other officers are chosen by the senate. The senate tries all impeachments; each house determines the validity of the elections and qualifications of its own members, forms its own rules, and keeps a journal of its proceedings. The members are privileged from arrest, while attending on the session, going to, or returning from the same, except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace."

Of the Powers of Congress. "The congress of the United States have power to make and enforce all laws, which are necessary for the general welfare—as to lay and collect taxes, imposts, and excises; borrow money, regulate commerce, establish uniform rules of naturalization, coin money, establish post-roads and post-offices, promote the arts and sciences, institute tribunals inferior to the supreme court, define and punish piracy, declare war, and make reprisals, raise and support armies, provide a navy, regulate the militia, and to make all laws necessary to carry these powers into effect."

Of Restrictions. "No bill of attainder, or retrospective law shall be passed; the writ of habeas corpus cannot be suspended, except in cases of rebellion or invasion; no direct tax can be laid, except according to a census of the inhabitants; no duty can be laid on exports; no money can be drawn from the treasury, unless appropriated by law; no title of nobility can be granted, nor can any public officer, without the consent of congress, accept of any present or title from any foreign prince or state. The states are restrained from emitting bills of credit, from making any thing but gold or silver a tender for debts, and from passing any law impairing private contracts."

Of the Executive. "The executive power of the United States is vested in a president, who holds his office for four years. To qualify a man for president, he must have been a citizen at the adoption of the constitution, or must be a native of the United States; he must have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States. The president and vice-president are chosen by electors, designated in such a manner as the legislature of each state shall direct. The number of electors in each state is equal to the whole number of senators and representatives."

Of the Powers of the President. "The president of the United States is commander-in-chief of the army and navy, and of the militia when in actual service. He grants reprieves and pardons; nominates, and, with the consent of the senate, appoints ambassadors, judges and other officers; and, with the advice and consent of the senate, forms treaties, provided two thirds of the senate agree. He fills vacancies in offices which happen during the recess of the senate. He convenes the congress on extraordinary occasions, receives foreign ministers, gives information to congress of the state of public affairs, and, in general, takes care that the laws be faithfully executed."

Of the Judiciary. "The judiciary of the United States consists of one supreme court, and such inferior courts as the congress shall ordain. The judges are to hold their offices during good behavior, and their salaries cannot be diminished during their continuance in office. The judicial power of these courts extends to all cases in law and equity, arising under the constitution, or laws of the United States, and under treaties; to cases of public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies between the states, and in which the United States are a party; between citizens of different states; between a state and a citizen of another state, and between citizens of the same state, claiming under grants of different states; and to causes between one of the states or an American citizen, and a foreign state or citizen."

Of Rights and Immunities. "In all criminal trials, except impeachment, the trial by jury is guarantied to the accused.

Treason is restricted to the simple acts of levying war against the United States, and adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort; and no person can be convicted, but by two witnesses to the same act, or by confession in open court. A conviction of treason is not followed by a corruption of blood, to disinherit the heirs of the criminal, nor by a forfeiture of estate, except during the life of the offender. The citizens of each state are entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states. Congress may admit new states into the Union; and the national compact guaranties to each state a republican form of government, together with protection from foreign invasion and domestic violence."

8. By a resolution of the convention, it was recommended that assemblies should be called, in the different states, to discuss the merits of the constitution, and either accept or reject it; and that, as soon as nine states should have ratified it, it should be carried into operation by congress.

To decide the interesting question, respecting the adoption or rejection of the new constitution, the best talents of the several states were assembled in their respective conventions. The fate of the constitution could, for a time, be scarcely conjectured, so equally were the parties balanced. But, at length, the conventions of eleven states* assented to, and ratified the constitution.

9. From the moment it was settled that this new arrangement in their political system was to take place, the attention of all classes of people, as well anti-federalists as federalists, (for by these names the parties for and against the new constitution were called,) was directed to Gen. Washington, as the first president of the United States. Accordingly, on the opening of the votes for president, at New York, March 3d, 1789, by delegates from eleven states, it was found that he was unanimously elected to that office, and that John Adams was elected vice-president.

* North Carolina and Rhode Island refused their assent at this time, but afterwards acceded to it; the former, November, 1789; the latter, May, 1790.

NOTES.

10. MANNERS. The war of the revolution, as was observed in our notes on the last period, seriously affected the morals and manners of the people of the United States. The peace of 1783, however, tended, in a measure, to restore things to their former state. Those sober habits, for which the country was previously distinguished, began to return; business assumed a more regular and equitable character; the tumultuous passions roused by the war subsided; and men of wisdom and worth began to acquire their proper influence.

The change wrought in the manners of the people, during the revolution, began, in this period, to appear. National peculiarities wore away still more; local prejudices were further corrected, and a greater assimilation of the yet discordant materials, of which the population of the United States was composed, took place.

11. RELIGION. *Methodism* was introduced into the United States, during this period, under the direction of John Wesley, in England. This denomination increased rapidly in the Middle States, and, in 1789, they amounted to about fifty thousand.

During this period, also, the *infidelity*, which we have noticed, seems to have lost ground. Public worship was more punctually attended than during the war, and the cause of religion began again to flourish.

12. TRADE AND COMMERCE. The commerce of the United States, during the war of the revolution, as already stated, was nearly destroyed; but, on the return of peace, it revived. An excessive importation of goods immediately took place from England. In 1784, the imports, from England alone, amounted to eighteen millions of dollars, and in 1785, to twelve millions—making, in those two years, thirty millions of dollars, while the exports of the United States to England were only between eight and nine millions.

On the average of six years posterior to the war, the extent of this period, the imports from Great Britain into the United States were two millions one hundred and nineteen thousand eight hundred and thirty-seven pounds sterling; the exports nine hundred and eight thousand six hundred and thirty-six pounds sterling; leaving an annual balance of five millions three hundred and twenty-nine thousand two hundred and eighty-four dollars, in favor of Great Britain.

The commercial intercourse of the United States with other countries was less extensive than with England, yet it was not inconsiderable. From France and her dependencies, the United States imported, in 1787, to the amount of about two millions five hundred thousand dollars, and exported to the same to the value of five millions of dollars.

The trade of the United States with China commenced soon after the close of the revolutionary war. The first American vessel that went on a trading voyage to China, sailed from New York, on the 22d of February, 1784, and returned on the 11th of May, 1785. In 1789, there were fifteen American vessels at Canton, being a greater number than from any other nation, except Great Britain.

During this period, also, the Americans commenced the long and hazardous trading voyages to the North-West Coast of America. The first of the kind, undertaken from the United States, was from Boston, in 1788, in a ship commanded by Capt. Kendrick. The trade afforded great profits at first, and since 1788 has been carried on from the United States to a considerable extent.

The whale fishery, which, during the war, was suspended, revived on the return of peace. From 1787 to 1789, both inclusive, ninety-one vessels were employed from the United States, with one thousand six hundred and eleven seamen. Nearly eight thousand barrels of spermaceti oil were annually taken, and about thirteen thousand barrels of whale oil.

Small quantities of cotton were first exported from the United States about the year 1784. It was raised in Georgia.

13. AGRICULTURE. Agriculture revived at the close of the war; and, in a few years, the exports of produce raised in the United States were again considerable. Attention began to be paid to the culture of cotton, in the Southern States, about the year 1783, and it soon became a staple of that part of the country. About the same time, agricultural societies began to be formed in the country.

14. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. The excessive im-

portation of merchandize from Great Britain, during this period,—much of which was sold at low prices,—checked the progress of manufactures in the United States, which had been extensively begun during the war of the revolution. Iron works, however, for the construction of axes, ironing of carriages, and the making of machinery, &c. &c., were still kept up in all parts of the United States. Some coarse woollen and linen cloths, cabinet furniture, and the more bulky and simple utensils for domestic use, &c. &c., were manufactured in New England.

15. POPULATION. The population of the United States, at the close of this period, was nearly four millions.

16. EDUCATION. Several colleges were established during this period—one in Maryland, at Annapolis, called St. John's college; a second, in 1785, at Abington, in the same state, by the Methodists, called Cokesbury college; a third, in the city of New York; and a fourth, in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, in 1787—the former, by the name of Columbia college, and the latter, by that of Franklin college. The North Carolina university was incorporated in 1789.

The subject of education, during this period, seems to have attracted public attention throughout the United States, and permanent institutions, for the instruction of youth, were either planned or established, in every section of the country.

REFLECTIONS.

17. The history of the world furnishes no parallel to the history of the United States, during this short period. At the commencement of it, they had but just emerged from a long and distressing war, which had nearly exhausted the country, and imposed an accumulated debt upon the nation. They were united by a confederation inadequate to the purposes of government; they had just disbanded an army, which was unpaid and dissatisfied; and, more than all, they were untried in the art of self-government.

In circumstances like these, it would not have been strange had the people fallen into dissensions and anarchy, or had some bold, ambitious spirit arisen, and fastened the yoke of monarchy upon them. But a happier destiny awaited them. In this hour of peril, the same Providence, that had guided them thus far, still watched over them, and, as victory was granted them in the hour of battle, so wisdom was now vouchsafed in a day of peace. Those master spirits of the revolution, some of whom had recently retired from the camp to the enjoyment of civil life, were now called to devise the means of securing the independence which they had won. Perhaps they exhibited to the world a no less striking spectacle as the framers of our excellent constitution, than as victors over the arms of Britain.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD VII.

DISTINGUISHED BY WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.

Extending from the Inauguration of President Washington, 1789, *to the Inauguration of John Adams, as President of the United States,* 1797.

Sec. 1. On the 30th of April, 1789, Gen. Washington, in the presence of the first congress under the federal constitution, and before an immense concourse of spectators, was inducted into the office of president of the United States, by taking the oath prescribed by the constitution.

The ceremonies of the inauguration being concluded, Washington entered the senate-chamber, and delivered his first speech. In this, after expressing the reluctance with which he obeyed the call of his countrymen, from repose and retirement, so ardently coveted, after a series of military toils, and the diffidence with which he entered upon an office so full of responsibility, he proceeded thus:—

"It will be peculiarly improper to omit, in this *first* official act, my fervent supplications to that Almighty Being, who rules over the universe, who presides in the councils of nations."

Immediately after his inaugural address, he, with the members of both houses, attended divine service at St. Paul's chapel. Thus, in the commencement of his administration, did Washington, by every suitable means, acknowledge his sense of personal dependence upon divine wisdom, to guide with discretion the affairs of a nation committed to his care; thus did he set an example worthy of imitation by all who are elevated to places of authority and responsibility.

2. Business of importance, in relation to the organization and support of the new government, now pressed upon the attention of the president and of congress. A revenue was to be provided; the departments of government were to be arranged and filled; a judiciary was to be established, and its officers appointed; and provision was to be made for the support of public credit.

In respect to a revenue for the support of government, and the discharge of the debt contracted in the revolutionary war, it was agreed that duties should be laid on merchandise imported into the country, and on the tonnage of vessels. Laws were passed, creating a department of state, of the treasury, of war; and Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Hamilton, and Gen. Knox were appointed secretaries. During this session, also, a national judiciary was constituted and organized, and several amendments to the constitution were proposed, which were afterwards ratified by the states.

In the debate on establishing the executive departments, an important inquiry arose by whom these important officers could be removed. After a long discussion, it was decided that the power should reside in the president alone.

But notwithstanding the question was settled in this manner, there were strong objections to placing a power in the hands of an individual which might be greatly abused; since it was apparent that the president might, from whim, or caprice, or favoritism, remove a meritorious officer, to the great injury of the public good. But to this it was well replied by Mr. Madison:— "The danger consists in this; the president can displace from office a man whose merits require that he should be continued in it. What will be the motives which the president can feel for such an abuse of his power, and the restraints to operate to prevent it? In the first place, he will be impeachable by this house before the senate for such an act of maladministration; for I contend, that the wanton removal of meritorious officers would subject him to impeachment and removal from his own high trust."

3. Before the adjournment of congress, deeply impressed with a sense of the divine goodness, that body requested the president to recommend to the people a day of public thanksgiving and prayer, in which they should unitedly acknowledge, with grateful hearts, the many and signal favors of Almighty God, especially in affording them an opportunity peaceably to establish a constitution of government for their safety and happiness.

4. On the 29th of September, the first session of

congress closed. It was among their concluding acts, to direct the secretary of the treasury to prepare a plan for adequately providing for the support of the public credit, and to report the same at their next meeting.

5. During the recess of congress, Washington made a tour into New England. Passing through Connecticut and Massachusetts, and into New Hampshire as far as Portsmouth, he returned by a different route to New York.

With this excursion, the president had much reason to be gratified. To observe the progress of society, the improvements in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, and the temper, circumstances, and dispositions of the people—while it could not fail to please an intelligent and benevolent mind, was, in all respects, worthy of the chief magistrate of the nation. He was every where received with expressions of the purest affection, and could not fail to rejoice in the virtue, religion, happiness and prosperity of the people, at the head of whose government he was placed.

6. The second session of the first congress commenced January 8th, 1790. In obedience to the resolution of the former congress, the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Hamilton, made his report on the subject of maintaining the public credit.

In this report, he strongly recommended to congress, as the only mode, in his opinion, in which the public credit would be supported,—

1. That provision be made for the full discharge of the foreign debt, according to the precise terms of the contract;

2. That provision be made for the payment of the domestic debt, in a similar manner;

3. That the debts of the several states, created for the purpose of carrying on the war, be assumed by the general government.

The public debt of the United States was estimated by the secretary, at this time, at more than fifty-four millions of dollars. Of this sum, the foreign debt, principally due to France and the Hollanders, constituted eleven millions and a half of interest; and the domestic liquidated debt, including about thirteen

millions of arrears of interest, more than forty millions; and the unliquidated debt two millions. The secretary recommended the assumption of the debts of the several states, to be paid equally with those of the Union, as a measure of sound policy and substantial justice. These were estimated at twenty-five millions of dollars.

7. The proposal for making adequate provision for the foreign debt was met cordially and unanimously; but, respecting the full discharge of the domestic debt, and the assumption of the state debts, much division prevailed in congress. After a spirited and protracted debate on these subjects, the recommendation of the secretary prevailed, and bills conformable thereto passed, by a small majority.

The division of sentiment among the members of congress, in relation to the full, or only a partial payment of the domestic debt, arose from this. A considerable proportion of the original holders of public securities had found it necessary to sell them at a reduced price—even as low as two or three shillings on the pound. These securities had been purchased by speculators, with the expectation of ultimately receiving the full amount. Under these circumstances, it was contended by some, that congress would perform their duty, should they pay to all holders of public securities only the reduced market price. Others advocated a discrimination between the present holders of securities, and those to whom the debt was originally due, &c. &c.

In his report, Mr. Hamilton ably examined these several points, and strongly maintained the justice of paying to all holders of securities, without discrimination, the full value of what appeared on the face of their certificates. This, he contended, justice demanded, and for this the public faith was pledged.

By the opposers of the bill which related to the assumption of the state debts, the constitutional authority of the federal government for this purpose was questioned, and the policy and justice of the measure controverted.

To cancel the several debts which congress thus undertook to discharge, the proceeds of public lands, lying in the western territory, were directed to be applied, together with the surplus revenue, and a loan of two millions of dollars, which the president was authorized to borrow, at an interest of five per cent.

This measure laid the foundation of public credit upon such basis, that government paper soon rose from two shillings and sixpence to twenty shillings on the pound, and, indeed, for a short time, was above par. Individuals, who had purchased certificates of public debt low, realized immense fortunes. A gen-

eral spring was given to the affairs of the nation. A spirit of enterprise, of agriculture, and commerce, universally prevailed, and the foundation was thus laid for that unrivalled prosperity which the United States, in subsequent years, enjoyed.

8. During this session of congress, a bill was passed, fixing the seat of government for ten years at Philadelphia, and, from and after that time, permanently at Washington, on the Potomac.

9. On the 4th of March, 1791, VERMONT, by consent of congress, became one of the United States.

The tract of country, which is now known by the name of Vermont, was settled at a much later period than any other of the eastern states. The governments of New York and Massachusetts made large grants of territory in the direction of Vermont; but it was not until 1724, that any actual possession was taken of land within the present boundaries of the state. In that year, Fort Durance was built, by the officers of Massachusetts, on Connecticut river. On the other side of the state, the French advanced up Lake Champlain, and, in 1731, built Crown Point, and began a settlement on the eastern shore of the lake.

Vermont being supposed to fall within the limits of New Hampshire, that government made large grants of land to settlers, even west of Connecticut river. New York, however, conceived herself to have a better right to the territory, in consequence of the grant of Charles II. to his brother, the Duke of York. These states being thus at issue, the case was submitted to the English crown, which decided in favor of New York, and confirmed its jurisdiction as far as Connecticut river. In this decision New Hampshire acquiesced; but, New York persisting in its claims to land east of the river, actions of ejectment were instituted in the courts at Albany, which resulted in favor of the New York title. The settlers, however, determined to resist the officers of justice, and, under Ethan Allen, associated together to oppose the New York militia, which were called out to enforce the laws.

On the commencement of the revolution, the people of Vermont were placed in an embarrassing situation. They had not even a form of government. The jurisdiction of New York being disclaimed, and allegiance to the British crown refused, every thing was effected by voluntary agreement. In January, 1777, a convention met, and proclaimed that the district before known by the name of the New Hampshire Grants, was of right a free and independent jurisdiction, and should be henceforth called *New Connecticut, alias* Vermont. The convention proceeded to make known their proceedings to congress, and petitioned to be admitted into the confederacy. To this New York objected, and,

for a time, prevailed. Other difficulties arose with New Hampshire and Massachusetts, each of which laid claim to land within the present boundaries of the state. At the peace of 1783, Vermont found herself a sovereign and independent state *de facto*, united with no confederation, and therefore unembarrassed by the debts that weighed down the other states. New York still claimed jurisdiction over the state, but was unable to enforce it; and the state government was administered as regularly as in any of the other states. After the formation of the federal constitution, Vermont again requested admission into the Union. The opposition of New York was still strong, but, in 1789, was finally withdrawn, upon the agreement of Vermont to pay her the sum of thirty thousand dollars. Thus terminated a controversy, which had been carried on with animosity, and with injury to both parties, for twenty-six years. A convention was immediately called, by which it was resolved to join the federal Union. Upon application to congress, their consent was readily given, and, on the 4th of March, 1791, Vermont was added to the United States.

10. At the time that congress assumed the state debts, during their second session, the secretary of the treasury had recommended a tax on domestic spirits, to enable them to pay the interest. The discusson of the bill, having been postponed to the third session, was early in that session taken up. The tax, contemplated by the bill, was opposed with great vehemence, by a majority of southern and western members, on the ground that it was unnecessary and unequal, and would be particularly burdensome upon those parts of the Union which could not, without very great expense, procure foreign ardent spirits. Instead of this tax, these members proposed an increased duty on imported articles generally, a particular duty on molasses, a direct tax, or a tax on salaries, &c. &c. After giving rise to an angry and protracted debate, the bill passed by a majority of thirty-five to twenty-one.

11. The secretary next appeared with a recommendation for a national bank. A bill, conformed to his plan, being sent down from the senate, was permitted to progress, unmolested, in the house of representatives, to the third reading. On the final reading, an unex-

pected opposition appeared against it, on the ground that banking systems were useless; that the proposed bill was defective; but especially that congress was not vested, by the constitution, with the competent power to establish a national bank.

These several objections were met, by the supporters of the bill, with much strength of argument. After a debate of great length, supported with the ardor excited by the importance of the subject, the bill was carried in the affirmative, by a majority of nineteen voices.

A bill which had been agitated with so much warmth, in the house of representatives, the executive was now called upon to examine with reference to its sanction or rejection. The president required the opinions of the cabinet in writing. The secretary of state, Mr. Jefferson, and the attorney-general, Mr. Randolph, considered the bill as decidedly unconstitutional. The secretary of the treasury, Mr. Hamilton, with equal decision, maintained the opposite opinion. A deliberate investigation of the subject satisfied the president, both of the constitutionality and utility of the bill, upon which he gave it his signature.

The capital stock of the bank was ten millions of dollars, two millions to be subscribed for the benefit of the United States, and the residue by individuals. One fourth of the sums subscribed by individuals was to be paid in gold and silver, and three fourths in the public debt. By the act of incorporation, it was to be a bank of discount as well as deposit, and its bills, which were payable in gold and silver on demand, were made receivable in all payments to the United States. The bank was located at Philadelphia, with power in the directors to establish offices of discount and deposit only wherever they should think fit, within the United States.

The duration of the charter was limited to the fourth of May, 1811; and the faith of the United States was pledged, that, during that period, no other bank should be established under their authority. One of the fundamental articles of the incorporation was, that no loan should be made to the United States, for more than one hundred thousand dollars, or to any particular state, for more than fifty thousand, or to any foreign prince, or state, unless previously authorized by a law of the United States. The books were opened for subscriptions in July, 1791, and a much larger sum subscribed than was allowed by the charter; and the bank went into successful operation.*

The bill which had now passed, with those relating to the

* Pitkin.

finances of the country, the assumption of the state debts, the funding of the national debt, &c., contributed greatly to the complete organization of those distinct and visible parties, which, in their long and ardent conflict for power, have since shaken the United States to their centre.

12. While matters of high importance were occupying the attention, and party strife and conflicting interests were filling the counsels of congress with agitation, an Indian war opened on the north-western frontier of the states. Pacific arrangements had been attempted by the president with the hostile tribes, without effect. On the failure of these, an offensive expedition was planned against the tribes north-west of the Ohio

The command of the troops, consisting of three hundred regulars, and about one thousand two hundred Pennsylvania and Kentucky militia, was given to Gen. Harmar, a veteran officer of the revolution. His instructions required him, if possible, to bring the Indians to an engagement; but, in any event, to destroy their settlements on the waters of the Scioto, a river falling into the Ohio, and the Wabash, in the Indiana territory. In this expedition, Harmar succeeded in destroying some villages, and a quantity of grain, belonging to the Indians; but in an engagement with them, near Chilicothe, he was routed with considerable loss.

Upon the failure of Gen. Harmar, Major-General Arthur St. Clair was appointed to succeed him. Under the authority of an act of congress, the president caused a body of levies to be raised for six months, for the Indian service.

13. Having arranged the north-western expedition, directing St. Clair to destroy the Indian villages on the Miami, and to drive the savages from the Ohio, the president commenced a tour through the Southern States similar to that which he made through the northern and central parts of the Union, in 1789.

The same expressions of respect and affection awaited him, in every stage of his tour, which had been so zealously accorded to him in the north. Here, also, he enjoyed the high satisfaction of witnessing the most happy effects, resulting from the administration of that government over which he presided.

14. In December, intelligence was received by the president, that the army under Gen. St. Clair, in a bat

tle with the Indians, near the Miami, in Ohio, had been totally defeated, on the 4th of the preceding month.

The army of St. Clair amounted to near one thousand five hundred men. The Indian force consisted of nearly the same number. Of the loss of the Indians, no estimate could be formed; but the loss of the Americans was unusually severe: thirty-eight commissioned officers were killed in the field, and five hundred and ninety-three non-commissioned officers and privates were slain and missing. Between two and three hundred officers and privates were wounded, many of whom afterwards died. This result of the expedition was as unexpected as unfortunate; but no want either of ability, zeal, or intrepidity, was ascribed, by a committee of congress, appointed to examine the causes of its failure, to the commander of the expedition.

15. Upon the news of St. Clair's defeat, a bill was introduced into congress for raising three additional regiments of infantry, and a squadron of cavalry, to serve for three years, if not sooner discharged. This bill, although finally carried, met with an opposition more warm and pointed, from the opposers of the administration, than any which had before been agitated in the house.

By those who opposed the bill, it was urged, that the war with the Indians was unjust; that militia would answer as well, and even better, than regular troops, and would be less expensive to support; that adequate funds could not be provided; and, more than all, that this addition of one regiment to the army after another, gave fearful intimation of monarchical designs on the part of those who administered the government.

On the other hand, the advocates of the bill contended, that the war was a war of self-defence; that, between the years 1783 and 1790, not less than one thousand five hundred inhabitants of Kentucky, or emigrants to that country, and probably double that number, had been massacred by the Indians; and that repeated efforts had been made by the government to obtain a peace, notwithstanding which, the butcheries of the savages still continued in their most appalling forms.

16. On the 8th of May, 1792, congress adjourned to the first Monday in November. The asperity which, on more than one occasion, had discovered itself in the course of debate, was a certain index of the growing exasperation of parties. With their adjournment, the

conflicting feelings of members in a measure subsided; the opposition, however, to the administration, had become fixed. It was carried into retirement, was infused by members into their constituents, and a party was thus formed throughout the nation, hostile to the plans of government adopted by Washington, and his friends in the cabinet.

17. On the 1st of June, 1792, KENTUCKY, by act of congress, was admitted into the Union as a state.

The country now called Kentucky was well known to the Indian traders, many years before its settlement. By whom it was first explored is a matter of uncertainty, and has given rise to controversy. In 1752, a map was published by Lewis Evans, of the country on the Ohio and Kentucky rivers; and it seems that one James Macbride, with others, visited this region in 1754. No further attempt was made to explore the country until 1767, when John Finley, of North Carolina, travelled over the ground on the Kentucky river, called by the Indians, "the dark and bloody ground." On returning to Carolina, Finley communicated his discoveries to Col. Daniel Boone, who, in 1769, with some others, undertook to explore the country. After a long and fatiguing march, they discovered the beautiful valley of Kentucky. Col. Boone continued an inhabitant of this wilderness until 1771, when he returned to his family for the purpose of removing them, and forming a settlement in the new country. In 1773, having made the necessary preparations, he set out again with five families and forty men, from Powell's Valley, and, after various impediments, reached the Kentucky river, in March, 1775, where he commenced a settlement.

In the years 1778, 1779, and 1780, a considerable number of persons emigrated to Kentucky; yet, in this latter year, after an unusually severe winter, the inhabitants were so distressed, that they came to the determination of abandoning the country forever. They were fortunately diverted from this step by the arrival of emigrants. During the revolutionary war, they suffered severely from the Indians incited by the British government. In 1778, Gen. Clarke overcame the Indians, and laid waste their villages. From this time, the inhabitants began to feel more secure, and the settlements were extended. In 1779, the legislature of Virginia, within whose limits this region lay, erected it into a county. In 1782, a supreme court, with an attorney-general, was established within the district. In the years 1783, 1784, and 1785, the district was laid out into counties, and a great part of the country surveyed and patented. In 1785, an attempt was made to form an independent state; but, a major-

ity of the inhabitants being opposed to the measure, it was delayed until December, 1790, when it became a separate state.

In 1792, as stated above, it was admitted into the Union. The growth of Kentucky has been rapid, and she has obtained a respectable rank and influence among her sister states.

18. During the recess of congress, preparations were hastened by the president, for a vigorous prosecution of the war with the Indians; but such small inducements were presented to engage in the service, that a sufficient number of recruits could not be raised to authorize an expedition against them the present year. As the clamor against the war, by the opposers of the administration, was still loud, the president deemed it advisable, while preparations for hostilities were advancing, to make another effort at negotiation with the unfriendly Indians. The charge of this business was committed to Col. Harden and Maj. Freeman, two brave officers, and valuable men, who were murdered by the savages.

19. On the opening of the next congress, in November, a motion was made to reduce the military establishment; but it did not prevail. The debate on this subject was peculiarly earnest, and the danger of standing armies was powerfully urged. This motion, designed as a reflection upon the executive, was followed by several resolutions, introduced by Mr. Giles, tending to criminate the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Hamilton, of misconduct, in relation to certain loans, negotiated under his direction.

In three distinct reports, sent to the house, the secretary offered every required explanation, and ably defended himself against the attacks of the opposition. Mr. Giles, and some others, however, were not satisfied: other resolutions were, therefore, offered, which, although rejected, were designed to fix upon the secretary the reputation of an ambitious man, aiming at the acquisition of dangerous power.

During these discussions, vehement attacks were made upon the secretary, in the public prints. Hints also were suggested against the president himself; and although he was not openly

accused of being the head of the federal party, of favoring their cause, or designing to subvert the liberties of his country, yet it was apparent that such suspicions were entertained of him.

On the 3d of March, 1793, a constitutional period was put to the existence of this congress. The members separated with obvious symptoms of irritation; and it was not to be doubted that their efforts would be exerted to communicate to their constituents the feelings which agitated their bosoms.

20. The time had now arrived, 1793, when the electors of the states were again called upon to choose a chief magistrate of the Union. Washington had determined to withhold himself from being again elected to the presidency, and to retire from the cares of political life. Various considerations, however, prevented the declaration of his wishes, and he was again unanimously elected to the chair of state. Mr. Adams was re-elected vice-president.

21. Through the unceasing endeavors of the president to terminate the Indian war, a treaty had been negotiated with the Indians, on the Wabash; and, through the intervention of the Six Nations, those of the Miamis had consented to a conference during the ensuing spring. Offensive operations were, therefore, suspended, although the recruiting service was industriously urged, and assiduous attention was paid to the discipline and preparation of the troops.

22. The Indian war, though of real importance, was becoming an object of secondary consideration. The revolution in France was now progressing, and began so to affect our relation with that country, as to require an exertion of all the wisdom and firmness of the government. Early in April, also, information was received of the declaration of war by France against England and Holland.

This event excited the deepest interest in the United States. A large majority of the people, grateful for the aid that France had given us in our revolution, and devoted to the cause of liberty, were united in fervent wishes for the success of the French

republic.* At the same time, the prejudices against Great Britain, which had taken deep root during the revolution, now sprung forth afresh, and the voice of many was heard, urging the propriety of the United States making a common cause with France against Great Britain.

A pressing occurrence had called Washington to Mount Vernon, when intelligence arrived of the rupture between France and England. Hastening his return to Philadelphia, he summoned the attention of his cabinet to several questions, respecting the course of conduct proper for the United States to observe in relation to the belligerents.

Although sensible of the prejudices existing in the country against Great Britain, and of the friendly disposition which prevailed towards France, it was the unanimous opinion of the cabinet, that a strict neutrality should be observed by the United States towards the contending powers. The council was also unanimous, that a minister from the French republic should be received, should one be sent. In accordance with the advice of his cabinet, the president issued his proclamation of neutrality, on the 22d of April, 1793.

This proclamation, being without legislative sanction, soon became the subject of loud invective. The opposition party, through the press, pronounced it "a royal edict," an assumption of power on the part of the president, and a proof of his monarchical disposition. They denounced the conduct of the executive as dishonorable, and an act of neutrality, as high ingratitude towards France, the firm and magnanimous ally of the United

* The revolution in France commenced about the year 1789. It seems to have been hastened, or brought on, by the new ideas of freedom, which had been imbibed by the French army in the United States, and thence disseminated among the people of France, for a long time oppressed and degraded by a despotic government. Unfortunately, the revolution fell into the hands of selfish and unprincipled men, who, in 1793, executed their king, Louis XVI., and, soon after, his family, and murdered or imprisoned those who were suspected of hostility to their views, and involved France in a scene of guilt and bloodshed, which cannot be contemplated without horror. In the first stages of this revolution, the friends of liberty throughout the world were full of hopes for a melioration of the political condition of France; but these hopes were soon blasted by the sanguinary steps adopted by the revolutionists. Had they been men governed by reason and religion, instead of unbridled ambition; actuated by a philanthropic regard to the good of the people, instead of a selfish thirst of power; France to this day might have enjoyed the blessings of a free government.

States, which had assisted in achieving the liberties of the country.

23. As was anticipated, the republic of France recalled the minister of the crown, and appointed a minister of its own, Mr. Genet, to succeed him. His mission had for its object the enlisting of America in the cause of France, against Great Britain. Flattered by the manner in which he was received by the people, as well as by their professions of attachment to his country, Mr. Genet early anticipated the accomplishment of his object. Presuming too much upon this attachment, he was led into a series of acts infringing the neutrality proclaimed by the president. He also attempted to rouse the people against the government, because it did not second all his views. At length, on the advice of his cabinet, the president solicited of the French republic the recall of Mr. Genet, and the appointment of some one to succeed him. Monsieur Fauchet was appointed, and was instructed to assure the American government, that France totally disapproved of the conduct of his predecessor.

Mr. Genet, on his arrival in the country, landed at Charleston, S. C. He was received by the governor of that state, and by the citizens, with a flow of enthusiastic feeling, equalled only by that which had been evinced towards his nation at the conquest of Yorktown.

Soon after landing at Charleston, he began to authorize the fitting and arming of vessels in that port, enlisting men, and giving commissions to cruise and commit hostilities against nations with which the United States were at peace. Vessels captured by these cruisers were brought into port, and the consuls of France, under the authority of Genet, not yet recognized as a minister by the American government, assumed the power of holding courts of admiralty on them, of trying and condemning them, and of authorizing their sale.

On the meeting of congress, December, 1793, the proclamation of neutrality was approved by them, as well as the conduct of the government towards Mr. Genet.

Finding on most questions, arising between the French minister and the government of the United States, a wide and an increasing difference of views, and perceiving no beneficial effects

resulting from his continuance in that character, the cabinet unanimously advised his recall.

24. 1794. On the last day of December, 1793, Mr. Jefferson, the secretary of state, resigned his office, and was succeeded by Edmund Randolph, the then attorney-general. This latter office was filled by William Bradford, a gentleman of considerable eminence in Pennsylvania.

25. During the session of congress this year, a resolution passed to provide a naval force adequate to the protection of the commerce of the United States against the Algerine corsairs. The force proposed was to consist of six frigates, four of forty-four, and two of thirty-six guns.

This measure was founded upon the communications of the president, from which it appeared that the prospect of being able to negotiate a treaty of peace with the dey of Algiers was doubtful; that eleven American merchant vessels, and upwards of one hundred citizens, had been captured by them; and that further preparations were making for a renewed attack upon unprotected vessels belonging to the United States.

26. During this session of congress, a law passed, prohibiting the carrying on of the slave trade from the American ports.

England had been actively engaged in the slave trade nearly fifty years, when the first settlement was effected in Virginia. Slavery was early introduced into the American colonies. The first slaves, about twenty in number, were brought to Virginia, in 1619, by a Dutch ship. The importation of them gradually increased, and although principally bought by the southern planters, slaves were soon found, in great numbers, in all the colonies. In 1784, they amounted to six hundred thousand; in 1790, to six hundred and ninety-seven thousand six hundred and ninety-six.

A disgust towards this inhuman traffic appeared very early in the colonies; but it was countenanced and patronized by the English government, and thus introduced into, and fastened upon the country, without the power, on the part of the colonies, to arrest it.

In Massachusetts, in 1645, a law was made, "prohibiting the buying and selling of slaves, except those taken in lawful war, or reduced to servitude by their crimes." In 1703, the same colony imposed a heavy duty on every negro imported; and, in

a subsequent law on the subject, they called the practice "*the unnatural and unaccountable custom of enslaving mankind.*" In Virginia, as early as 1699, attempts were made to repress the importation of slaves, by heavy duties. These, and other acts, show that the North American provinces would, if left to themselves, have put an end to the importation of slaves, before the era of their independence.

In 1778, Virginia abolished the traffic by law; Connecticut, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts, prohibited it before the year 1789. The continental congress passed a resolution against the purchase of slaves imported from Africa, and exhorted the colonies to abandon the trade altogether. The third congress of the United States, as stated above, prohibited the trade, by law. Thus we see, in the United States, a very early and settled aversion to the slave trade manifesting itself; and before European nations had consented to relinquish it, several of the states had utterly prohibited it.

27. At this session, also, several measures were adopted in anticipation of a war with Great Britain, growing out of her commercial restrictions, which bore heavy, and operated most unjustly, upon the United States. Bills were passed for laying an embargo for thirty days—for erecting fortifications—for organizing the militia, and increasing the standing army. As an adjustment of differences, however, seemed desirable, Mr. Jay was appointed envoy extraordinary to the court of St. James, and succeeded in negotiating a treaty with Great Britain the following year.

Among the offensive acts of the government of Great Britain, was an order of June, 1793, prohibiting the exportation of corn to France, and authorizing the capture of neutral vessels carrying it thither. Under this order, many American vessels were captured, and carried into England. In November following, additional instructions were given by the British cabinet, to ships of war and privateers, to bring into port, for trial, all ships laden with goods from France, or her colonies, and such as were carrying provisions, or other supplies, to either. To these causes of complaint, Great Britain had added another, viz. neglecting to deliver up the western posts according to treaty.

While measures were taking, in anticipation of war, the president received advices from England, that the order of November had been considerably modified; that most of the merchant vessels which had been carried into port for trial, would be released;

and that a disposition for peace with the United States existed in the British cabinet.

These advices opened to the president the prospect of restoring a good understanding between the two nations, and induced him immediately to nominate an envoy to settle existing differences, and to negotiate commercial arrangements. The nomination of Mr. Jay was approved, in the senate, by a majority of ten.

To those opposed to the administration, no step could have been more unexpected or disagreeable, than this decisive measure of the president. Prejudices against Great Britain had risen to their height, and hostilities against her were loudly demanded, as both just and necessary. It was not singular, therefore, that, for this act, the president should receive the severest censures of the opposition party, nor that all who favored his efforts for peace should be included in the general denunciation.

28. The suspension of hostilities against the Indians in the north-west, in consequence of their consenting to a conference in the spring of 1794, has already been noticed. (*Sec.* 21.) This effort to conclude a treaty with them failing, Gen. Wayne, who had succeeded Gen. St Clair, engaged the Indians, August 20th, 1794, on the banks of the Miami, and gained a complete victory over them.

The American troops engaged in this battle did not exceed nine hundred; the Indians amounted to two thousand. In this decisive engagement, Gen. Wayne lost one hundred and seven in killed and wounded, including officers. After the battle, he proceeded to lay waste the whole Indian country. By means of this victory over the Miamis, a general war with the Six Nations, and all the tribes north-west of the Ohio, was prevented.

29. This year, 1794, was distinguished by an insurrection in Pennsylvania, known by the name of the "Whiskey Insurrection," growing out of laws enacted by congress, in 1791, laying duties on spirits distilled within the United States, and upon stills. In August, the president issued his proclamation, commanding the insurgents to disperse. This not having the desired effect, a respectable body of militia was ordered out, under Gov. Lee, of Maryland, on whose approach the insurgents laid down their arms, solicited the clemency of

the government, and promised future submission to the laws.

From the time that duties were laid upon spirits distilled within the United States, &c., combinations were formed, in the four western counties of Pennsylvania, to prevent their collection. Numerous meetings were held at different times and places, a which resolutions were passed, and, in several instances, violences were committed upon the officers of the revenue. Eigh teen of the insurgents were taken, and tried for treason, but not convicted.

30. 1795. January 1st, Col. Hamilton resigned the office of secretary of the treasury, and was succeeded by Oliver Wolcott, of Connecticut. Nearly at the same time, Timothy Pickering succeeded Gen. Knox, in the department of war.

31. In June, Mr. Jay having succeeded in negotiating a treaty with Great Britain, the senate was convened to consider its merits. After an elaborate discussion of it, that body advised to its ratification by a majority of twenty to ten. Notwithstanding the great opposition to it that prevailed among the enemies of Great Britain, the president gave it his signature. Contrary to the predictions of many in the country, the treaty settled existing difficulties between the two nations, prevented a war, which previously seemed fast approaching, and proved of great advantage to the United States.

The treaty, when published, found one party prepared for condemnation, while the other was not ready for its defence Time was necessary for a judicious and careful consideration of its merits.

In the populous cities, meetings were immediately called, and resolutions and addresses forwarded to the president requesting him to withhold his assent. Upon the president, however, these had no other effect, than to induce him to weigh still more carefully the merits of the treaty. When, at length, he was satisfied of its utility, he signed it, although he thereby incurred the censures of a numerous portion of the citizens.

32. In the course of the following autumn, treaties were concluded with the dey of Algiers, and with the Miamis in the west. By the former treaty, American

citizens, in captivity in Algiers, were liberated; and by the latter, the western frontiers of the United States were secured from savage invasion. A treaty with Spain soon after followed, by which the claims of the United States, on the important points of boundary, and the navigation of the Mississippi, were fully conceded.

33. On the first of June, 1796, TENNESSEE was admitted, by act of congress, into the Union as a state.

Tennessee derives its name from its principal river. This name, in the language of the Indians, signifies a curved *spoon*, the curvature, to their imaginations, resembling that of the river Tennessee.

The territory of Tennessee was granted, in 1664, by Charles II. to the Earl of Clarendon, and others, being included in the limits of the Carolinas. About the beginning of the next century, Carolina was divided into two provinces, and Tennessee fell to the lot of the northern province. Near the year 1754, fifty families were settled on the Cumberland river, where Nashville now stands; but they were dislodged by the savages soon after. In 1765, a number of emigrants settled themselves beyond the present limits of North Carolina, and were the first of the colonists of Tennessee. By the year 1773, the inhabitants had considerably increased. When the constitution of North Carolina was formed, in 1776, that district sent deputies to the meeting. In the year 1780, a small colony of about forty families, under the direction of James Robertson, crossed the mountains, and settled on the Cumberland river, where they founded Nashville. In 1785, the inhabitants of Tennessee, feeling the inconveniences of a government so remote as that in the capital of North Carolina, endeavored to form an independent one, to which they intended to give the name of the "State of Franklin;" but, differing among themselves, the scheme for the time was abandoned. In 1789, the legislature of North Carolina passed an act ceding the territory, on certain conditions, to the United States. Congress, in the following year, accepted the cession, and by another act, passed on the 26th of May, 1790, provided for its government under the title of "The territory of the United States, south of the Ohio." In 1796, congress passed an act enabling the people to form a state constitution, which having been adopted and approved, Tennessee was acknowledged as a sovereign state in the Union.

34. On the meeting of congress in 1796, resolutions were passed to carry into effect the treaties negotiated

the preceding year. On the subject of the treaty with Great Britain, the liveliest sensibility still prevailed. After a spirited and protracted debate of seven weeks, on the subject of making the necessary arrangements for this treaty, resolutions to that effect passed the house by a majority of only three.

35. As the time for a new election of the chief magistrate of the Union approached, Gen. Washington signified his intention to retire from public life. Wishing to terminate his political course with an act suitable to his own character, and permanently useful to his countrymen, he published a valedictory address to the people of the United States, fraught with maxims of the highest political importance, and with sentiments of the warmest affection for his country.

In conclusion, this great and good man bore his solemn testimony to the importance of *religion* and *morality*, as intimately connected with political prosperity. "Of all the dispositions and habits which lead to political prosperity," he observed, "*religion* and *morality* are indispensable supports. In vain would that man claim the tribute of patriotism, who should labor to subvert these great pillars of human happiness, these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens. The mere politician, equally with the pious man, ought to respect and cherish them. A volume could not trace all their connections with private and public felicity. Let it simply be asked, Where is the security for property, for reputation, for life, if the sense of religious obligations *desert* the oaths which are the instruments of investigation in courts of justice? And let us with caution indulge the supposition, that morality can be maintained without religion. Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure, reason and experience both forbid us to expect that *national morality* can prevail in exclusion of *religious principle*."

36. In February, 1797, the votes for his successor were opened and counted in the presence of both houses of congress. The highest number appearing in favor of Mr. Adams, he was declared to be elected president of the United States, for the four years ensuing, commencing on the 4th of March. Mr. Jefferson succeeded Mr. Adams in the vice-presidency.

NOTES.

37. MANNERS. We can remark, during this period, no very distinct change in the manners of the people of the United States, except that the introduction of French philosophy seems to have affected, in some degree, the sober habits and strict morality of the people, which, although relaxed by the war, had now begun to resume their influence.

38. RELIGION. At the close of the preceding period, we observed that religion had revived, in a degree, from the injuries it suffered during the revolutionary war; and we might have expected, that, under the auspices of a wise and settled government, conducted by a practical Christian like Washington, it would have acquired a still more commanding influence. Such, however, was not the fact.

As the people of the United States heartily espoused the cause of the revolution in France, and sympathized with that people, in their struggle for freedom, it was but too natural, that the sentiments of the revolutionists, on other than political subjects, should be imbibed. As the French revolutionists were almost universally deists, or atheists, these sentiments were extensively spread over the United States.

For a time, the boldness of the enterprises, the splendor of the victories, and the importance of the conquests, achieved by the French republic, promoted the extension of French infidelity in the United States. "Most eyes," says Dr. Dwight, "were disabled from seeing the nature of the purposes which the revolutionists had in view, and of the characters which were exhibited on this singular stage. In the agitation and amazement excited in all men, few retained so steady optics as to discern, without confusion, the necessary consequences of this stupendous shock."

Infidelity was also greatly extended, at this time, by the writings of Paine, Godwin, and others, which were industriously circulated through the country.* The perspicuous and sim-

* Godwin's Political Justice, and Paine's Age of Reason, powerfully urged on the tide of infidelity. An enormous edition of the latter publication was printed in France, and sent to America, to be sold for a few pence only; and where it could not be sold, it was given away.

ple style of Paine, his keen powers of ridicule, directed against the Bible, and above all, the gratitude which multitudes felt for the aid his pen had given to our revolution, contributed to impart to him a peculiarly powerful influence. His vicious life, however, and the horrible enormities committed by the French revolutionists, gave such a fearful comment upon their principles, as at length, in a great measure, to bring them into discredit, and to arrest their growing influence.

39. TRADE AND COMMERCE. These flourished, during this period, beyond all former example. In 1797, the exports of the United States, of all kinds, amounted to fifty-six millions eight hundred and fifty thousand two hundred and six dollars. The imports amounted to seventy-five millions three hundred and seventy-nine thousand four hundred and six dollars. Our vessels visited every part of the world, and brought wealth and luxuries from every country.

40. AGRICULTURE. Aside from the importance of agriculture, as furnishing us with the greatest portion of our food, it began now to derive greater consequence, as furnishing materials for our manufactures, and, still more, as contributing largely to our exports. In 1796, it was estimated that *three fourths* of the inhabitants of the United States, if not a greater proportion, were employed in agricultural pursuits.

41. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. During this period, manufactures attracted the attention of government Mr. Hamilton, secretary of the treasury, made a report to congress, on the subject, in which he set forth their importance to the country, and urged the policy of aid ing them. Since that time, the revenue laws have been framed with the view to the encouragement of manufactures, and their promotion has been considered as a part of the settled policy of the United States. Although the flourishing state of commerce commanded the attention, and absorbed the capital of the country, in some degree, to the exclusion of other objects, still manufactures made considerable progress.

42. POPULATION. The inhabitants of the United

States, at the close of this period, amounted to about five millions.

43. EDUCATION. The adoption of the federal constitution placed the political affairs of the United States on a permanent basis; and since that period, learning has flourished.

In 1791, the University of Vermont was established at Burlington; Williams' College, Massachusetts, in 1793; Union College, at Schenectady, New York, and Greenville College, Tennessee, in 1794; Bowdoin College, at Brunswick, in Maine, 1796. An Historical Society was formed in Massachusetts, in 1791, and incorporated in 1794. It has published twenty-three volumes of documents designed to illustrate the past and present state of the country.

REFLECTIONS.

44. A short time since, we were occupied in considering the United States struggling for independence, under Washington, as *a leader of their armies*. Under his guidance, we saw them triumph, and become a free nation. We have also seen them, with Washington at the *head of the convention*, forming our excellent constitution. We *now* see them, with Washington their *chief magistrate*, taking their place among the sovereignties of the earth, and launching forth on the full tide of successful experiment.

Under Washington, as our leader, we won our independence; formed our constitution; established our government. And what reward does he ask for services like these? Does he ask a diadem? Does he lay his hand upon our national treasury? Does he claim to be emperor of the nation that had risen up under his auspices? No. Although "first in war, first in peace, first in the hearts of his countrymen,"—he sublimely retires to the peaceful occupations of rural life, content with the honor of having been instrumental in achieving the independence, and securing the happiness of his country.

There is no parallel in history to this! By the side of Washington, Alexander is degraded to a selfish destroyer of his race; Cæsar becomes the dazzled votary of power; and Bonaparte, a baffled aspirant to universal dominion.

Washington has been the theme of eulogy in every nation. "His military successes," it has been well said, "were more solid than brilliant, and judgment, rather than enthusiasm, regulated his conduct in battle. In the midst of the inevitable disorder of camps, and the excesses inseparable from civil war,

humanity always found a refuge in his tent. In the morning of triumph, and in the darkness of adversity, he was alike serene; at all times tranquil as wisdom and simple as virtue. After the acknowledgment of American independence, when the unanimous suffrages of a free people called him to administer their government, his administration, partaking of his character, was mild and firm at home, noble and prudent abroad."*

* Inchiquin's Letters.

UNITED STATES

PERIOD VIII.

DISTINGUISHED FOR ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION.

Extending from the Inauguration of President Adams, 1797, *to the Inauguration of Thomas Jefferson, as President of the United States,* 1801.

Sec. 1. On the fourth of March, 1797, Mr. Adams, in the presence of the senate, of the officers of the general and state governments, and a numerous concourse of spectators, took the oath of office, as president of the United States.

The condition of the country, at the close of Washington's administration, and the commencement of Mr. Adams's, was greatly improved from that of 1789, the period at which the former entered upon his office.

At home, a sound credit had been established; an immense floating debt had been funded in a manner perfectly satisfactory to the creditors, and an ample revenue had been provided. Those difficulties, which a system of internal taxation, on its first introduction, is doomed to encounter, were completely removed; and the authority of the government was firmly established.

Funds for the gradual payment of the debt had been provided; a considerable part of it had actually been discharged; and that system which is now operating its entire extinction, had been matured and adopted. The agricultural and commercial wealth of the nation had increased beyond all former example. The numerous tribes of Indians, on the west, had been taught, by arms and by justice, to respect the United States, and to continue in peace.

Abroad, the differences with Spain had been accommodated. The free navigation of the Mississippi had been acquired, with the use of New Orleans, as a place of deposit, for three years and afterwards, until some equivalent place should be designated.

Those causes of mutual exasperation, which had threatened to involve the United States in a war with the greatest maritime and commercial power in the world, had been removed; and the military posts which had been occupied within their territory, from their existence as a nation, had been evacuated. Treaties had been formed with Algiers and Tripoli, and no captures appear to have been made by Tunis; so that the Mediterranean was opened to American vessels.

This bright prospect was, indeed, in part, shaded by the discontents of France. But the causes of these discontents it had been impossible to avoid, without surrendering the right of self-government. Such was the situation of the United States at the close of Washington's, and the commencement of Adams's administration.

2. Just before Washington retired from office, learning that France meditated hostilities against the United States, by way of depredations on her West India commerce, he had recalled Mr. Monroe, then minister to that court, and despatched Gen. C. C. Pinckney, minister plenipotentiary, to adjust existing differences.

Immediately upon succeeding to the presidency, Mr. Adams received intelligence that the French republic had announced to Gen. Pinckney its determination "not to receive another minister from the United States, until after the redress of grievances," &c.

On the receipt of this intelligence, the president issued his proclamation to convene congress on the 15th of June. In his speech on that occasion, having stated the indignity offered the United States by France, in refusing to receive her minister, the president, in the tone of a high-minded and independent American, urged congress "to repel this indignity of the French government, by a course which shall convince that government and the world, that we are not a degraded people, humiliated under a colonial spirit of fear and a sense of inferiority, fitted to be the miserable instruments of foreign

influence, and regardless of national honor, character, and interest."

Notwithstanding this language, the president still retained a desire for peace. Upon his recommendation, three envoys extraordinary, C. C. Pinckney, Elbridge Gerry, and John Marshall, were appointed to the French republic, to carry into effect the pacific dispositions of the United States.

3. For a considerable time, no certain intelligence reached the country respecting the negotiations at Paris. At length, in the winter of 1798, letters were received from the American envoys, indicating an unfavorable state of things; and in the spring, despatches arrived, which announced the total failure of the mission.

Before the French government would acknowledge the envoys, money, by way of *tribute*, was demanded in explicit terms of the United States This being refused, an attempt was next made to excite the fears of the American ministers for their country and themselves. The immense power of France was painted in glowing colors, the humiliation of the house of Austria was stated, and the conquest of Britain was confidently anticipated. In the friendship of France alone, they were told, could America look for safety.

During these transactions, occasion was repeatedly taken to insult the American government; open war was continued to be urged by the cruisers of France on American commerce; and the flag of the United States was a sufficient justification for the capture and condemnation of any vessel over which it waved.

4. Perceiving further negotiations to be in vain, congress now proceeded to the adoption of vigorous measures for retaliating injuries, which had been sustained, and for repelling still greater injuries, which were threatened. Amongst these measures was the augmentation of the regular army.

A regiment of artillerists and engineers was added to the permanent establishment, and the president was authorized to raise twelve additional regiments of infantry, and one regiment of cavalry. He was also authorized to appoint officers for a provisional army, and to receive and organize volunteer corps.

By the unanimous consent of the senate, Gen. Washington was appointed lieutenant-general and command-

er-in-chief of all the armies raised, or to be raised, in the United States.

5. While preparations were thus making for war, indirect pacific overtures were communicated by the French government to the president, and a willingness expressed to accommodate existing differences on reasonable terms.

Solicitous to restore that harmony and good understanding, which had formerly existed between the two countries, the president listened to these overtures, and appointed three envoys—Oliver Ellsworth, chief justice of the United States; Patrick Henry,* then late governor of Virginia; and William Vans Murray, minister at the Hague—to discuss and settle, by treaty, all controversies between the United States and France.

On the arrival of these envoys at Paris, they found the government in the hands of Bonaparte, who had not been concerned in the transactions which had disturbed the peace of the two countries. Negotiations were commenced, which terminated in a treaty of peace, September 30th, 1800; soon after which the provisional army in America was, by order of congress, disbanded.

6. On the 14th of December, 1799, Gen. Washington expired, at his seat at Mount Vernon, in Virginia, leaving a nation to mourn his loss, and to embalm his memory with their tears.

Believing, at the commencement of his complaint, that its conclusion would be mortal, he economized his time in arranging, with the utmost serenity, those few concerns which required his attention. To his physician he expressed his conviction that he was dying; "but," said he, "*I am not afraid to die.*"

On the arrival of the news of his death at Philadelphia, Monday, congress immediately adjourned. On the day succeeding, resolutions were adopted expressive of the grief of the members, and a committee was appointed to devise a mode by which the national feelings should be expressed.

This committee, in their report, recommended that a marble monument be erected by the United States, at the city of Wash-

* Before the time of embarkation, Mr. Henry died, and Gov. Davie of North Carolina was appointed in his room.

ington, to commemorate the great events of Washington's military and political life; that a funeral oration be delivered by a member of congress; that the president be requested to write a letter of condolence to Mrs. Washington; and that it be recommended to the citizens of the United States, to wear crape on the left arm for thirty days.

These resolutions passed both houses unanimously. The whole nation appeared in mourning. The funeral procession at the city of Philadelphia was grand and solemn, and the eloquent oration, delivered on the occasion by Gen. Henry Lee, was heard with profound attention, and with deep interest.

Throughout the United States, similar marks of affliction were exhibited. Funeral orations were delivered, and the best talents devoted to an expression of grief, at the loss of "the man, first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his fellow citizens."

7. In 1800, agreeably to a resolution passed in congress in 1790, (*Per.* VII. *Sec.* 8.) the seat of government was transferred from Philadelphia to the city of Washington, in the district of Columbia.

The *District of Columbia* is a territory of ten miles square. It is about three hundred miles from the sea, at the head of tide water on the Potomac, which runs through it diagonally, near the centre. It was ceded, in 1790, to the United States, by Maryland and Virginia, and it is under the immediate government of congress.

8. On the 4th of March, 1801, Mr. Adams's term of office as president would expire. Before the arrival of the time for a new election, it had been pretty certainly predicted, that he could not be re-elected. His administration, through the whole course of it, had been the subject of much popular clamor, especially by the democratic party. But the measures, which most excited the opposition of that party, and which were most successfully employed to destroy the popularity of Mr. Adams's administration, and to place the government in other hands, were several laws passed during his presidency, among which were the "*Alien*" and "*Sedition*" laws.

By the "*alien law*," the president was authorized to order any alien, whom "he should judge dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States, &c., to depart out of the territory, within

such time" as he should judge proper, upon penalty of being "imprisoned for a term not exceeding three years," &c.

The design of the "*sedition law*," so called, was to punish the abuse of speech, and of the press. It imposed a heavy pecuniary fine, and imprisonment for a term of years, upon such as should combine or conspire together to oppose any measure of government; upon such as should write, print, utter, publish, &c., "any false, scandalous, and malicious writing against the government of the United States, or either house of the congress of the United States, or the president," &c.

These acts, together with others for raising a standing army, and imposing a direct tax and internal duties, with other causes, so increased the opposition to Mr. Adams's administration, as to prevent his re-election, and greatly to weaken the strength of that party to whom he owed his elevation to the presidency.

9. The strife of parties, during the term of electioneering, was spirited. On canvassing the votes of the electors for president, it was found that Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Burr had each seventy-three votes, Mr. Adams sixty-five, and C. C. Pinckney sixty-four. As the constitution provided that the person having the greatest number of votes should be president, and Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Burr having an equal number, it became the duty of the house of representatives, voting by states, to decide between these two gentlemen.

The ballot was taken for several days in succession, February, 1801, before a choice was made. The federal party generally supported Mr. Burr; the democratic party Mr. Jefferson. At length, after much political heat and party animosity, the choice fell upon the latter, who was declared to be elected president of the United States for four years, commencing March 4th, 1801. Mr. Burr was elected vice-president.

As this was the first time that the election of president had come before congress, since the adoption of the constitution, a deep interest was taken in the subject. This interest was heightened by the excited state of parties, into which congress itself, and the people of the United States, were divided. The mode of proceeding to the election of president, therefore, was settled in due form and solemnity. Among other rules, it was settled, that, after the balloting had commenced, the house should not adjourn, until a choice was made; that the doors of the house

should be closed, during the balloting, except against the officers of the house; that, in balloting, the representatives of the respective states should be so seated, that the delegation of each state should be together. The representatives of each state were *to* ballot among themselves: duplicates of these ballots were to be made, and placed in two ballot boxes. When all the states had thus voted, the ballot boxes were to be carried by the sergeant-at-arms to two separate tables. The ballots were then to be counted by tellers, eight in number, at each table. When counted, the reports were to be announced from each table: if these reports agreed, they were to be accepted, as the true votes of the states; if they differed, a new balloting was to be made.

On Wednesday, the 11th of February, the votes from the several electoral colleges were counted in the senate chamber, in presence of both houses; and the result was declared by the president to be, no choice—Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Burr having each an equal number of votes.

The question therefore devolving upon the house of representatives, that body returned to their chamber, where seats had been previously prepared for the members of the senate. A call of the members of the house, arranged according to states, was then made; upon which it appeared that every member was present, except Gen. Sumpter, who was unwell, and unable to attend. Mr. Nicholson, of Maryland, was also unwell, but attended, and had a bed prepared for him in one of the committee rooms, to which place the ballot-box was carried to him, by the tellers, on the part of the state.

The first ballot was eight states for Mr. Jefferson, six for Mr. Burr, and two divided; which result continued to be the same after balloting thirty-five times. The thirty-sixth ballot determined the question.

This important decision took place at twelve o'clock on the 17th of February, when there appeared for Mr. Jefferson ten states; for Mr. Burr four states; and the remaining two were blank ballots. The states which voted for Mr. Jefferson were, Georgia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New York, and Vermont. The states for Mr. Burr were, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. The blank states were Delaware and South Carolina.

NOTES.

10. MANNERS. The manners of the people of the United States underwent no marked change during this period.

11. RELIGION. Although infidelity does not seem to have made much progress in the United States, during this period, it was evident that it had taken deep root in many minds.

Infidels, however, were less confident, and less ready to avow their sentiments. They stood abashed before the world, at the fearful and blood-chilling horrors which their principles had poured out upon France. Their doctrines were, at the same time, powerfully refuted by the ablest men both in England and America. At length, they ceased to make proselytes, spoke favorably of the Christian religion, generally admitted that it was absolutely necessary to good government; and error, with regard to religion, assumed a new form.

Towards the close of this period, a revival of religion commenced in New England, and seems to have been the beginning of that series of revivals which have since overspread the United States. Some sects, which had before regarded "revivals of religion" with suspicion or aversion, became convinced of their utility, and began to promote them.

12. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Trade and commerce were still prosperous, and the remarks made in respect to them, under Period VII., apply to them during this period.

The exports, in 1801, were ninety-three millions twenty thousand five hundred and seventy-three dollars; the imports, one hundred and eleven millions, three hundred and sixty-three thousand five hundred and eleven dollars.

13. AGRICULTURE. Agriculture still continued to flourish.

14. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. The general remarks on the preceding period, relative to this subject, apply, without material alteration, to this period.

15. POPULATION. The number of inhabitants, at the close of this period, was not far from five millions five hundred thousand.

16. EDUCATION. We have nothing particular to observe in relation to education. Public and private schools, however, were multiplied, as the people increased, and as new settlements were made.

In 1798, a college was founded at Lexington, Kentucky, called

the Transylvania University. Middlebury College, in Vermont, was founded in 1800. At the commencement of the 18th century, there was, in New England, but one college completely founded, but now there were six; in the colonies south of Connecticut, there was only one, but now there were fifteen or sixteen.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD IX.

DISTINGUISHED FOR JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

Extending from the Inauguration of President Jefferson, 1801, to the Inauguration of James Madison, as President of the United States, 1809.

Sec. 1. On the 4th of March, 1801, Mr. Jefferson, agreeably to the constitution, was regularly inducted into the office of president of the United States.

2. The commencement of Mr. Jefferson's administration was marked by the removal of a great portion of those who held responsible and lucrative offices, on the ground, that they were *too exclusively* the friends of the party opposed to that, which had elevated him to office.

3. Congress met on the 8th of December. In his speech at the opening of the session, the president recommended the abolition of the internal taxes; the repeal of the act passed towards the close of Mr. Adams's administration, reorganizing the United States courts, and erecting sixteen new judges; and an enlargement of the rights of naturalization. The debates on these several topics, in both houses of congress, were extended to great length, and displayed much eloquence, argument, and warmth. The recommendation of the president, notwithstanding the opposition, prevailed, and bills in accordance therewith were passed.

The internal taxes, from the time of their establishment, had been extremely unpopular with the party which had elevated Mr. Jefferson to the presidency. It was a favorite measure, therefore, of his, to procure their abolition.

The national judicial establishment originally consisted of a supreme court, with six judges, who twice a year made a tour of the United States in three circuits. Under this arrangement, great inconveniences were experienced by the court, the bar, and the suitors. The new arrangement in the judicial system, and the increase of judges at the close of Mr. Adams's term, had excited, in a large portion of the citizens, the hope of a more prompt and impartial administration of justice. To that portion of the community, the repealing act was a painful disappointment.

4. In 1802, OHIO was admitted, by act of congress, as an independent state, into the Union.

The state of Ohio derived its name from the river Ohio, which sweeps the south-eastern border of the state.

Until 1787, it was inhabited only by Indians, a few Moravians, and trespassers on lands belonging to the public. By virtue of her charter, the territory was claimed by Virginia, and held by her, although the original charter of Connecticut, extending west to the Pacific ocean, included a great part of it.

In 1781, the legislature of Virginia ceded to the United States all her rights to the territory north-west of the river Ohio, excepting some few military tracts. In 1788, the first settlement was begun at Marietta, under Gen. Rufus Putnam, from New England. It had been, the year before, erected into one district, including the present territories of Michigan, Illinois, and Indiana.

Until 1795, the settlement of Ohio was retarded by constant wars with the Indians. But at that time, a general peace with the different tribes being effected, by Gen. Wayne, under Washington, the population of the territory rapidly increased by emigrations from Europe, and still more from New England.

5. In July, 1804, occurred the death of Gen. Alexander Hamilton, who fell in a duel fought with Aaron Burr, vice-president of the United States.

Col. Burr had addressed a letter to Gen. Hamilton, in which he demanded a denial or acknowledgment, on the part of the latter, of certain offensive expressions, contained in a public paper. Hamilton, declining to give either, was challenged by Burr. Although averse, from principle, to this mode of settling personal controversies, in an evil moment, Hamilton, actuated by a false sense of honor, accepted the challenge, and, on meet-

ing his enemy, fell by means of his first fire. Among his personal and political friends, his death caused a deep sensation. The people of New York city, in which he resided, paid him extraordinary honors. Few men have shone with greater brilliancy in our country; few have been gifted with a more powerful eloquence, or have been more justly respected for their talents or attainments.

6. Mr. Jefferson's first term of office ending this year, a new election took place, at which he was re-chosen president, and on the 4th of March again took the oath of office. George Clinton, of New York, was elected vice-president.

7. During the year which commenced the second of Mr. Jefferson's presidency, a war, which had been continued for several years between the United States and Tripoli, was concluded, and a treaty of peace negotiated by Col. Lear, between the two countries, by which the Tripolitan and American prisoners were exchanged, and the sum of sixty thousand dollars given to the pacha.

The history of this war deserves a place in these pages. The commerce of the United States had been long annoyed by the Tripolitan cruisers—many merchantmen had been taken, and their crews imprisoned and cruelly treated.

As early as 1803, a squadron under Com. Preble had been sent to the Mediterranean, to protect the American commerce, and to bring the corsairs to submission. During the same year, Capt. Bainbridge, in the Philadelphia, joined Com. Preble, and, in chasing a cruiser into the harbor of Tripoli, grounded his vessel; and he and his crew were taken prisoners.

Shortly after the surrender of the Philadelphia, the Tripolitans got her afloat, and warped her into the outward harbor. In this situation, Lieutenant, afterwards Commodore Decatur, conceived the bold plan of attempting to set her on fire. He had the day before captured a small xebec, laden with fruit and oil, which was bound to Tripoli; and having on board the Enterprise, which he commanded, an old pilot, who understood the Tripolitan language, he suggested his plan to Commodore Preble, who approved of it. He would accept of only twenty men, although a much greater number volunteered, and but one officer, Mr. Morris, a midshipman. With these men, concealed in the bottom of the xebec, on the approach of night, he sailed for the Philadelphia, taking with him the old pilot. On approaching the frigate,

the xebec was hailed, when the pilot answered, that he had lost his cable and anchor, and begged premission to make fast to the frigate until the morning. This the crew refused, but said he might make fast to their stern hawser, until they sent a boat to the admiral for leave.

As the boat put off for the shore, Lieut. Decatur, with his brave companions, leaped on board the frigate, and in a few minutes swept the deck of every Tripolitan. Of fifty, not one reached the shore. The frigate was now set on fire, and while the flames rose, to spread consternation among the Tripolitans, they served to lighten the heroic Decatur and his band back in safety to the American squadron. Of the party, not one was killed, and but one wounded. This was a seaman who saved the life of his commander. In the first desperate struggle on board the Philadelphia, Decatur was disarmed, and fell. A sabre was already lifted to strike the fatal blow, when this seaman, observing the perilous situation of his officer, reached forward and received the blow of the sabre on his arm.

In consequence of the burning of the Philadelphia, the sufferings of Commodore Bainbridge and his crew, as well as those of other Americans in captivity at Tripoli, were greatly increased. The accounts of their sufferings, transmitted to the United States, excited the sympathy of all classes, and a general cry for exertions to effect their deliverance was heard from all parts of the Union.

It happened, that some time before this, the then reigning bashaw of Tripoli, Jussuf, third son of the late bashaw, had murdered his father and eldest brother, and proposed to murder the second, in order to possess himself of the throne. But the latter, Hamet Caramelli, made his escape, and Jussuf, without farther opposition, usurped the government.

Hamet took refuge in Egypt, where he was kindly treated by the beys. Here he was, on the arrival of an accredited agent of the United States, Gen. Eaton, who revived his almost expiring hopes of regaining his rightful kingdom.

Gen. Eaton had been consul for the United States up the Mediterranean, and was returning home when he heard of the situation of Hamet. Conceiving a plan of liberating the Americans in captivity at Tripoli, by means of the assistance of Hamet, and, at the same time, of restoring this exile to his throne, he advised with Hamet, who readily listened to the project, and gave his co-operation.

A convention was accordingly entered into between Gen. Eaton, on the part of the United States, and Hamet, by which the latter stipulated much in favor of the Americans, and was promised to be restored to his throne.

With a small force, consisting of seamen from the American squadron, the followers of Hamet, and some Egyptian troops,

Gen. Eaton and Hamet, with incredible toil and suffering, passed the desert of Barca, and took possession of Derne, the capital of a large province belonging to the kingdom of Tripoli. The forces of Eaton were now so much increased, and the cause of Hamet had become so popular, that the prospect was flattering of his being able to reduce the city of Tripoli, and of effecting the liberation of the captives without ransom.

The success of Eaton struck the usurper Jussuf with terror. Trembling for his fate in this juncture, he proposed to Mr. Lear, the consul-general of America, then in the Mediterranean, to enter into negotiation. Mr. Lear, who was authorized to enter into negotiation, accepted the proposal, although he knew of the success of Eaton and Hamet, and a treaty ensued. Eaton and Hamet were consequently arrested in the prosecution of their purpose, and the unfortunate exile failed of his promised restoration to the throne.

In 1805, Hamet visited the United States, with the expectation of obtaining some remuneration for his services from America, and for her failure in fulfilling her stipulations to him by Gen. Eaton. A proposition to this effect was brought before congress, but, after much discussion, was rejected.

8. During this year, 1805, MICHIGAN became a distinct territorial government of the United States.

The Michigan territory, when first discovered by the whites, was inhabited by the *Hurons*, a tribe of Indians, many of whom were converted to Christianity by the Jesuit missionaries in 1648. About the year 1670, the Hurons were defeated and dispersed by the Six Nations, about which time, the French took possession of the territory, and built a fort at Detroit, and another at Michillimackinac. Little, however, was done by the French to settle the country.

At the peace of 1763, the territory was ceded by the French to Great Britain, and by the latter to the United States in 1783. Until 1787, it remained in the same state of nature, without a government or any considerable settlements; but at this time, the several states which had claims upon it, ceded them to the United States, and a territorial government was instituted over all the territory north-west of the Ohio.

This territory remained under one government until 1800, when the present state of Ohio was detached, and made a distinct government. This was followed, in 1801, by a further separation of Indiana and Illinois: and, in 1805, Michigan was also detached, and was erected into a distinct territorial government. Gen. Hull was appointed by Mr. Jefferson the first governor.

9. In the autumn of 1806, a project was detected, at the head of which was Col. Burr, for revolutionizing

the territory west of the Alleganies, and of establishing an independent empire there, of which New Orleans was to be the capital, and himself the chief. Towards the accomplishment of this scheme, which, it afterwards appeared, had been some time in contemplation, the skilful cunning and intrigue of Col. Burr were directed. Happily, however, government, being apprized of his designs, arrested him, while as yet he had few adherents, and before his standard was raised. He was brought to trial at Richmond, on a charge of treason committed within the district of Virginia; but, no overt act being proved against him in that state, he was released.

In addition to this project, Col. Burr had formed another, which, in case of failure in the first, might be carried on independently of it:—this was an attack on Mexico, and the establishment of an empire there. A third object was provided, merely ostensible, to wit, the settlement of the pretended purchase of a tract of country on the Washita, claimed by a Baron Bastrop. This was to serve as a pretext for all his preparations, an allurement for such followers as really wished to acquire settlements in that country, and a cover under which to retreat, in the event of a final discomfiture of both branches of his real designs.

He found at once that the attachment of the western country to the present Union was not to be shaken; that its dissolution could not be effected with the consent of the inhabitants; and that his resources were inadequate, as yet, to effect it by force. He determined, therefore, to seize New Orleans, plunder the bank there, possess himself of the military and naval stores, and proceed on his expedition to Mexico.

He collected, therefore, from all quarters, where himself or his agents possessed influence, all the ardent, restless, desperate, disaffected persons, who were for an enterprise analogous to their characters. He also seduced good, well-meaning citizens, some by assurances that he possessed the confidence of the government, and was acting under its secret patronage; and others by offers of land in Bastrop's claim in the Washita.

10. 1806. To understand the subsequent political history of the United States, and those measures of government, which were taken in relation to foreign powers, it is necessary to glance at the state of the European nations, at this period—particularly that of England and France. These two countries were now at war with

each other, and in their controversies had involved most of the continental powers. Towards the belligerents, America was endeavoring to maintain a neutrality, and peaceably to continue a commerce with them. It was hardly to be expected, however, that jealousies would not arise, between the contending powers, in relation to the conduct of America, and that events would not occur, calculated to injure her commerce, and disturb her peace.

In addition to these circumstances, a controversy had long existed, and continued to exist, between the United States and Great Britain, in respect to the right of searching neutral ships and impressing seamen. Great Britain claimed it as among her prerogatives to take her native born subjects, wherever found, for her navy, and of searching American vessels for that purpose. As yet, no adjustment of this controversy had been effected. Notwithstanding the remonstrances of the American government, the officers of the British navy not unfrequently seized native born British subjects, who had voluntarily enlisted on board our vessels. They also impressed into the British service some thousands of American seamen.

11. May 16th, 1806, the British government issued an order in council, declaring the ports and rivers from the Elbe, a river in Germany, to Brest, a town of France, to be in a state of blockade. By this order, American vessels, trading to these and intervening ports, were liable to seizure and condemnation.

12. In the ensuing November, 1806, Bonaparte issued his celebrated decree at Berlin, called the "*Berlin decree*," by which all the British islands were declared to be in a state of blockade, and all intercourse with them was prohibited. This decree violated the treaty between the United States and France, and the law of nations.

The following are the principal articles of that decree, which related to the obstruction of American commerce :—

1. The British islands are in a state of blockade.
2. All commerce and correspondence with them is prohibited.
3. No vessel coming directly from England, or her colonies,

or having been there since the publication of this decree, shall be admitted into any port.

13. This decree of Bonaparte, at Berlin, was in part retaliated by the British government, in an *order of council*, issued January 7th, 1807, by which all coasting trade with France was prohibited.

"Whereas the French government has issued certain orders, which purport to prohibit the commerce of all neutral nations with his majesty's dominions," &c.—"his majesty is pleased to order, that no vessels shall be permitted to trade from one port to another, both which ports shall belong to, or be in possession of, France or her allies, or shall be so far under their control as that British vessels may not freely trade thereat," &c., on pain of capture and condemnation.

14. While measures were thus taking by France and England, whose tendency was to injure American commerce, and to involve her in a controversy with both, an event occurred, which filled the American people with indignation, and called for immediate executive notice. This was an attack upon the American frigate Chesapeake, Commodore Barron, off the capes of Virginia, by the British frigate Leopard, of fifty guns. The attack was occasioned by the refusal of Commodore Barron to surrender several seamen, who had deserted from the British armed ship Melampus, a short time previous, and had voluntarily enlisted on board the Chesapeake. After crippling the American frigate, which made no resistance, the commander of the Leopard took from her the seamen in question, two of whom had been proved to be American citizens.

The persons who deserted from the Melampus, then lying in Hampton roads, were William Ware, Daniel Martin, John Strachan, John Little, and Ambrose Watts. Within a month from their escape from the Melampus, the first three of these deserters offered themselves for enlistment, and were received on board the Chesapeake, then at Norfolk, Virginia, preparing for sea.

The British consul at Norfolk, being apprized of this circumstance, wrote a letter to the American naval officer, requesting these men to be returned. With this request the officer refusing

to comply, the British agent lost no time in endeavoring to procure an order from government for their surrender. In consequence of this application, the secretary of the navy ordered an examination into the characters and claims of the men in question. The required examination resulted in proof that Ware, Martin, and Strachan, were natives of America. The two former had *protections*, or notarial certificates of their being American citizens. Strachan had no *protection*, but asserted that he lost it previously to his escape. Such being the circumstances of the men, the government refused to surrender them.

On the 22d of June, the Chesapeake weighed anchor, and proceeded to sea. She passed the British ships Bellona and Melampus, lying in Lynnhaven bay, whose appearance was friendly. There were two other ships that lay off Cape Henry, one of which, the Leopard, Capt. Humphreys, weighed anchor, and, in a few hours, came alongside the Chesapeake.

A British officer immediately came on board, and demanded the deserters. To this, Capt. Barron replied, that he did not know of any being there, and that his duty forbade him to allow of any muster of his crew except by their own officers.

During this interview, Barron noticed some proceedings of a hostile nature on board the adverse ship, but he could not be persuaded that any thing but menace was intended by them. After the British officer departed, he gave orders to clear his gun-deck, and after some time, he directed his men to their quarters, secretly, and without beat of drum; still, however, without any serious apprehensions of an attack.

Before these orders could be executed, the Leopard commenced a heavy fire. This fire, unfortunately, was very destructive. In about thirty minutes, the hull, rigging, and spars of the Chesapeake, were greatly damaged, three men were killed and sixteen wounded; among the latter was the captain himself. Such was the previous disorder, that, during this time, the ut most exertions were insufficient to prepare the ship for action, and the captain thought proper to strike his colors.

The British captain refused to accept the surrender of the Chesapeake, but took from her crew, Ware, Martin, and Strachan, the three men formerly demanded as deserters, and a fourth, John Wilson, claimed as a runaway from a merchant ship.

15. Such was the agitation of the public mind, in consequence of this outrage committed on the Chesapeake, that the president, on the 2d of July, issued his proclamation, ordering all British armed vessels to leave the waters of the United States, and forbidding them to enter, until satisfaction for the attack on the Chesapeake should be made by the British government. About the

same time, instructions were forwarded to the American minister in England, Mr. Monroe, to demand reparation for the unauthorized attack upon the Chesapeake, and, as an essential part of that reparation, security against future impressments from American ships. The British minister, Mr. Canning, however, protested against conjoining the *general question* concerning the impressment of persons from neutral merchant ships, with the *particular affray* between the Leopard and the Chesapeake.

Mr. Monroe not being authorized to treat these subjects separately, further negotiation between these two ministers was suspended, and Mr. Rose was appointed, by the British government, as a special minister to the United States, empowered to treat concerning the *particular* injury complained of, but not to discuss the *general* question of impressing persons from merchant ships.

16. While such measures were taking in England, in relation to the affair of the Chesapeake, congress, which had been summoned by proclamation of the president, met on the 27th of October.

In his message to congress at this time, the president entered fully into the state of our relations with Great Britain—informed them of a treaty which had been negotiated with the British government, by Messrs. Monroe and Pinckney, but which he had rejected, principally because it made no sufficient provision on the subject of impressments—stated the affair of the attack on the Chesapeake—his proclamation to British armed vessels to quit the waters of the United States—his instructions to the American minister at London, in relation to reparation expected from the British government, and his expectation of speedily hearing from England the result of the measures which had been taken.

17. On the 11th of November were issued, at London, the celebrated *British Orders in Council*, retaliatory upon the French government for the Berlin decree of November, 1806. By these orders in council, France and her allies, all nations at war with Great Britain, and all places from which the British flag is excluded, were declared to be under the same restrictions in point of

trade and navigation, as if the same were in a state of blockade.

18. Before the arrival of Mr. Rose, congress was sedulously employed in considering the state of the nation, and in making provision for putting the country in a posture of defence.

Acts passed, appropriating one million of dollars to be employed by the president in equipping one hundred thousand of the national militia; eight hundred and fifty-two thousand five hundred dollars for building one hundred and eighty-eight gun-boats; one million of dollars for building, repairing, and completing fortifications, and for raising six thousand six hundred men, infantry, riflemen, artillery, and dragoons, as an addition to the standing army. On the 22d of December, an act passed, laying an *embargo* on all vessels within the jurisdiction of the United States.

19. On the 17th of December, Bonaparte, by way of retaliating the British orders in council, issued a decree, called "*the Milan decree*," declaring every vessel denationalized, which shall have submitted to a search by a British ship; and every vessel a good prize, which shall sail to or from Great Britain, or any of its colonies, or countries, occupied by British troops.

20. Mr. Rose arrived in America on the 25th of December. The American minister was soon after informed that he, Mr. Rose, was expressly forbidden by his government to make any proposal, touching the great subject of complaint, so long as the president's proclamation of July 2d, excluding British armed vessels from the waters of the United States, should be in force.

For a time, the president refused to annul this proclamation, till the atonement was not only solemnly offered, but formally accepted; but, in order to elude this difficulty, he finally agreed to revoke his proclamation, on the day of the date of the act, or treaty, by which reparation should be made for the recent violence. This concession, however, was built on two conditions: first, the terms of reparation which the minister was charged to offer, must be previously made known; and, secondly, they must be such as by the president should be accounted satisfactory.

But as the British minister declined to offer, or even to mention, the redress of which he was the bearer, till the American proclamation was recalled, and the president deeming its recall inexpedient, the controversy, for the present, closed.

The controversy respecting the Chesapeake was finally adjusted in November, 1811, at which time the British minister communicated to the secretary of state, that the attack on the Chesapeake was unauthorized by his majesty's government; that the officer, at that time in command on the American coast, had been recalled; that the men taken from the Chesapeake should be restored; and that suitable pecuniary provision should be made for those who suffered in the attack, and for the families of the seamen that fell. To these propositions the president acceded.

21. The difficulties with France and England, regarding commerce, still continuing, and the existing embargo having failed to coerce these powers, as was anticipated, into an acknowledgment of our rights, a more complete stop to our intercourse with them was deemed advisable by congress. Accordingly, on the 1st of March, congress interdicted, by law, all trade and intercourse with France and England.

22. Mr. Jefferson's second term of office expired on the 3d of March. Having previously declined a re-election, James Madison was chosen president, and George Clinton vice-president.

NOTES.

23. MANNERS. The bitterness of party spirit, which had now raged in the United States for some years, began to have a visible effect upon society. It interrupted, to no small extent, the general harmony, and even restrained the intercourse of friends and neighborhoods. The strife for power also introduced a disposition to intrigue; political cunning became fashionable, and political duplicity lost much of its deformity. These things necessarily affected the state of manners. They withdrew the finger of derision, which used to point at mean-

ness of all kinds, and blunted that love of honor, and manliness of conduct, which existed before. Cunning began to take the place of wisdom; professions answered instead of deeds; and duplicity stalked forth with the boldness of integrity.

24. RELIGION. Powerful revivals of religion pervaded the country, during this period, and tended strongly to prevent open infidelity, and to check the tide of pollution, which was invisibly spread over the land.

25. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Trade and commerce made great advances about the year 1803. The European powers being involved in war, and the United States remaining neutral, our vessels carried to Europe, not only the produce of our own country, but also the produce of other countries. This is usually called the *carrying trade*, and was very profitable to the country.

In 1805, 6, and 7, our average annual exports amounted to one hundred and two millions five hundred and sixty-seven thousand four hundred and fifty-four dollars, of which forty-four millions eight hundred and sixty-three thousand five hundred and seventeen dollars, were for domestic produce; and fifty-seven millions seven hundred and one thousand nine hundred and thirty-seven dollars, for foreign produce. The annual average of imports during these three years amounted to about one hundred and forty millions of dollars; a large proportion of the articles forming this amount, were re-exported to the West Indies, South America, and elsewhere.

After the year 1807, the commercial restrictions laid by France and England, began to curtail our trade; and the embargo, imposed at the close of the same year by our government, interrupted it still more essentially.

26. AGRICULTURE. Agriculture, during a part of this period, received great encouragement from our foreign trade. Europe being involved in contentions, the people had little leisure there to cultivate the soil; they were therefore supplied from other countries, and the United States furnished them with a great amount, and were thence deriving great profits, when the commercial restrictions interrupted the trade.

The first *merino* sheep were introduced into the country, in 1802, by Robert R. Livingston, and, the same year, a greater

number, one hundred, by General Humphreys, then late minister to Spain. Great attention was paid to the breeding of them, and they are now numerous in the United States.

27. ARTS AND MANUFACTURES. Arts and manufactures still progressed.

28. POPULATION. The population of the United States, at the close of Mr. Jefferson's administration, was about seven millions.

29. EDUCATION. The enlightened views respecting the importance of general information, entertained before, continued to prevail. New literary and scientific publications were commenced; more enlightened methods of instruction were adopted; academies were multiplied; colleges founded; and theological seminaries liberally endowed.

A theological seminary was founded at Andover, Massachusetts, in 1808. The amount which has been contributed for its permanent use, and which was given by six families, is more than three hundred thousand dollars. This sum includes the permanent fund, library, and public buildings. In 1822, the officers were four professors, and the number of students, one hundred and thirty-two. The library contains about five thousand volumes. A majority of the students are supported, in whole or in part, by charity.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD X.

DISTINGUISHED FOR MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION, AND THE LATE WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

Extending from the Inauguration of President Madison, 1809, *to the Inauguration of James Monroe, as President of the United States,* 1817.

Sec. 1. On the 4th of March, 1809, Mr. Madison was inducted into the office of president of the United States, according to the form prescribed by the constitution.

The condition of the United States, on the accession of Mr. Madison to the presidency, was in several respects gloomy and critical. The two great powers of Europe, France and England, being still at war, were continuing to array against each other violent commercial edicts, both in contravention of the laws of nations, and of their own solemn treaties; and calculated to injure and destroy the commerce of nations desirous of preserving a neutrality. America was also further suffering under the restrictions of commerce, imposed by her own government. Every effort to secure the due observance of her rights, from the contending powers, had hitherto failed, and the sad alternative was presenting itself to the American people, either to suffer the evils growing out of foreign and domestic restrictions, or to take up arms, and risk the consequence of a war with the belligerents.

2. Previously to the adjournment of the last congress, under Mr. Jefferson, an act passed, as already noticed, 1st of March, repealing the then existing embargo, and interdicting commercial intercourse with France and

Great Britain. If either of these powers, however, should revoke its hostile edicts, the president was authorized to renew the intercourse, in regard to the nation so revoking.

In April, Mr. Erskine, the British minister at Washington, engaged, on the part of his government, that the orders in council, so far as they affected the United States, should be withdrawn on the 10th of June; and the president immediately issued the proclamation prescribed by law.

This event produced the highest satisfaction throughout the country; but was speedily followed by a disappointment as great. The British government denied the authority of Mr. Erskine to enter into any such stipulations, and refused its ratification. On learning this refusal, the president issued his proclamation, August 10th, renewing the non-intercourse with Great Britain.

3. Early in September, Mr. Jackson arriving at Washington, as successor of Mr. Erskine, a correspondence was opened between this minister and the secretary of state, which, after continuing several weeks, was suddenly closed by the president, on account of an alleged insult on the part of Mr. Jackson.

4. 1810. On the 23d of March, Bonaparte issued a decree, usually called the "Rambouillet decree," designed to retaliate the act of congress, passed March 1st, 1809, which forbade French vessels entering the ports of the United States. By the above decree, all American vessels and cargoes, arriving in any of the ports of France, or of countries occupied by French troops, were ordered to be seized and condemned.

5. On the 1st of May, congress passed an act, excluding British and French armed vessels from the waters of the United States; but, at the same time, providing, that, in case either of the above nations should modify its edicts before the 3d of March, 1811, so that they should cease to violate neutral commerce, of which fact the president was to give notice by proclamation,

and the other nation should not, within three months after, pursue a similar step, commercial intercourse with the former might be renewed, but not with the latter.

6. In consequence of this act of the American government, the French minister, the Duke of Cadore, at Paris, informed the American minister, Mr. Armstrong, then in France, that the Berlin and Milan decrees were revoked, and that, from and after the 1st of November, they would cease to have effect. But, at the same time, it was subjoined, that it was "understood, that, in consequence of this declaration, the English shall revoke their orders in council," &c. About the same time, it was announced, that the Rambouillet decree had also been rescinded.

Although the condition subjoined to the Duke of Cadore's declaration rendered it doubtful whether the Berlin and Milan decrees would *in fact* cease to take effect after the 1st of November, the president issued his proclamation on the 2d of that month, declaring that those decrees were revoked, and that intercourse between the United States and France might be renewed.

7. While the affairs of America, in relation to the belligerents, were in this posture, an unhappy engagement took place, May, 1811, between the American frigate President, commanded by Captain Rodgers, and a British sloop-of-war, the Little Belt, commanded by Captain Bingham. The attack was commenced by the latter vessel, without provocation, and, in the rencontre, she suffered greatly in her men and rigging.

A court of inquiry was ordered on the conduct of Capt. Rodgers, which decided that it had been satisfactorily proved to the court, that Capt. Rodgers hailed the Little Belt first—that his hail was not satisfactorily answered—that the Little Belt fired the first gun—and that it was without previous provocation, or justifiable cause, &c. &c.

8. Congress was assembled by proclamation on the 5th of November. In his message, at the opening of the session, the president indicated the expectation of

hostilities with Great Britain at no distant period, since her orders in council, instead of being withdrawn, were, when least to have been expected, put into more rigorous execution.

9. In December, the president communicated to congress an official account of the battle of "*Tippecanoe*"—near a branch of the Wabash—fought November 7th, between an army under Gen. Harrison, governor of the Indiana Territory, and a large body of Indians, in which the latter were defeated.

The attack was commenced by the Indians, about four o'clock in the morning, while the army of Harrison were in a measure unprepared. But, notwithstanding this disadvantage, after a hard-fought action, the Indians were repulsed with a loss of nearly seventy killed, and upwards of a hundred wounded. The loss of the Americans was severe, being, according to official return, one hundred and eighty-eight in killed and wounded.

10. During the following year, 1812, LOUISIANA was admitted into the Union as a sovereign state.

Until the year 1811, Louisiana comprehended that vast tract of country which was ceded to the United States by France, in 1803. At that time, however, the *Territory of Orleans*, which was then a distinct territorial government, assumed the name of Louisiana, and was admitted, the following year, as a state, into the Union; since which time, the remaining portion of original Louisiana has received distinct denominations.

Louisiana was first discovered in 1541, by Ferdinand de Soto. In 1683, Monsieur de la Salle, an enterprising Frenchman, sailed up the Mississippi a considerable distance, and named the country *Louisiana*, in honor of Louis XIV. A French settlement was begun in 1699, by M. d'Ibberville, in Lower Louisiana, near the mouth of the river Perdido. The progress of the colony was slow. In 1712, although twenty-five hundred emigrants had arrived, only four hundred whites and twenty negroes were alive.

About this time, the French government made a grant of the country to M. de Crozat for a term of ten years; but after five years, he relinquished his patent to the Mississippi company. In the same year, 1717, the city of Orleans was founded.

By the treaty of 1763, all Louisiana east of the Mississippi was ceded to England, together with Mobile, and all the possessions of France in that quarter. About the same time, the possessions of France west of the Mississippi were secretly ceded to Spain. After the cession to Great Britain, that part of the territory which

lay west of the Mississippi received the name of *West Florida.* On the breaking out of the revolutionary war, Spain, after considerable hesitation, took part with the United States, incited, probably, by the hope of regaining her possessions east of the Mississippi. In 1779, Galvoy, the governor of Louisiana, took possession of Baton Rouge; and the other settlements of the English in Florida surrendered successively. By the treaty of 1783, the Mississippi was made the western boundary of the United States from its source to the 31st degree of latitude, and following this line to the St. Mary's. By a treaty of the same date, the Floridas were ceded to Spain without any specific boundaries.

This omission led to a controversy between the United States and Spain, which nearly terminated in hostilities. By a treaty with Spain, however, in 1795, boundary lines were amicably settled, and New Orleans was granted to American citizens as a place of deposit for their effects for three years and longer, unless some other place of equal importance should be assigned. No other place being assigned within that time, New Orleans continued to be used as before.

In 1800, a secret treaty was signed at Paris, by the plenipotentiaries of France and Spain, by which Louisiana was guarantied to France, and, in 1801, the cession was actually made. At the same time, the Spanish intendant of Louisiana was instructed to make arrangements to deliver the country to the French commissioners. In violation of the treaty of Spain with the United States, the intendant, by his proclamation of October, 1802, forbade American citizens any longer to deposit merchandize in the port of New Orleans. Upon receiving intelligence of this prohibition, great sensibility prevailed in congress, and a proposition was made to occupy the place by force; but, after an animated discussion, the project was relinquished, and negotiations with France were commenced, by Mr. Jefferson, for the purchase of the whole country of Louisiana, which ended in an agreement to that effect, signed at Paris, April 30th, 1803, by which the United States were to pay to France fifteen millions of dollars. Early in December, 1803, the commissioners of Spain delivered possession to France; and on the 20th of the same month, the authorities of France duly transferred the country to the United States. Congress had provided for this event, and under their act, William C. C. Claiborne was appointed governor. By an act of March, 1804, that part of the ceded country which lay south of the parallel of thirty-three degrees was separated from the rest, and called the *Territory of Orleans.* In 1811, this district was erected into a state, and, in 1812, was admitted into the Union by the name of *Louisiana.*

11. On the 3d of April, 1812, congress passed an act laying an *embargo,* for ninety days, on all vessels within

the jurisdiction of the United States, agreeably to a recommendation of the president. This measure, it was understood, was preparatory to a war with Great Britain, which the executive would soon urge upon congress to declare.

12. On the 4th of June, 1812, a bill declaring war against Great Britain passed the house of representatives, by a majority of seventy-nine to forty-nine. After a discussion of this bill in the senate till the 17th, it passed that body also, by a majority of nineteen to thirteen, and, the succeeding day, 18th,* received the signature of the president.

The principal grounds of war, set forth in a message of the president to congress, June 1st, and further explained by the committee on foreign relations, in their report on the subject of the message, were, summarily—The impressment of American seamen by the British; the blockade of her enemy's ports, supported by no adequate force, in consequence of which, the American commerce had been plundered in every sea, and the great staples of the country cut off from their legitimate markets; and the British orders in council.

Against the declaration of war, the representatives belonging to the federal party presented a solemn protest, which was written with distinguished ability, and which denied the war to be "necessary, or required by any moral duty, or political expediency."

*The following are the orders in council, French decrees, and the consequent acts of the American government, with their respective dates, presented in one view:—

1806, May 16th, British blockade from the Elbe to Brest.
" Nov. 21st, Berlin decree.
1807, Jan. 6th, British order in council, prohibiting the coasting trade.
" Nov. 11th, The celebrated British orders in council.
" Dec. 17th, Milan decree.
" Dec. 22d, American embargo.
1809, March 1st, Non-intercourse with Great Britain and France, established by congress.
" April 10th, Mr. Erskine's negotiation, which opened the trade with England.
" June 19th, Non-intercourse with Great Britain.
1810, March 18th, Rambouillet decree.
" May 1st, Act of congress conditionally opening the trade with England and France.
" Nov. 2d, President's proclamation, declaring the French decrees to be rescinded.
1812, April 4th, American embargo.
" June 18th, Declaration of war by the United States against Great Britain.

But not in congress only did this difference of views exist respecting the war; but it extended throughout the country, the friends of the administration universally commending, and its opposers as extensively censuring and condemning the measure. By the former, the war was strenuously urged to be unavoidable and just; by the latter, with equal decision, it was pronounced to be impolitic, unnecessary, and immoral.

13. The military establishments of the United States, upon the declaration of war, were extremely defective. Acts of congress permitted the enlistment of twenty-five thousand men; but few enlisted. The president was authorized to raise fifty thousand volunteers, and to call out one hundred thousand militia, for the purpose of defending the sea-coast and the frontiers. But the want of proper officers was now felt, as the ablest revolutionary heroes had paid the debt of nature. Such was the situation of things at the commencement of hostilities.

14. On the 16th of August, Gen. Hull, governor of Michigan, who had been sent, at the head of about two thousand five hundred men, to Detroit, with a view of putting an end to Indian hostilities in that country, surrendered his army to the British Gen. Brock, without a battle, and with it the fort of Detroit, together with all other forts and garrisons of the United States, within the district under his command.

In his official despatch, Gen. Hull labored to free his conduct from censure, by bringing into view the inferiority of his force, compared with that of the enemy—his not exceeding eight hundred effective men—that of the enemy amounting to thirteen hundred, of whom seven hundred were Indians;—and also the dangers which threatened him from numerous western tribes of Indians, who were swarming in the neighboring woods, and who were ready, in case of his defeat, to rush to the indiscriminate slaughter of the Americans.

Whether the views which induced this surrender of Hull were in reality justly founded or not, the public mind was altogether unprepared for an occurrence so disastrous and mortifying.

Not long after, Gen. Hull was exchanged for thirty British prisoners. Neither the government nor the people were satisfied with his excuses. The affair was solemnly investigated by a court-martial. He was charged with treason, cowardice, and unofficer-like conduct. On the first charge, the court declined giv-

ing an opinion; on the two last, he was sentenced to death; but was recommended to mercy, in consequence of his revolutionary services, and his advanced age. The sentence was remitted by the president; but his name was ordered to be struck from the rolls of the army.

15. On the 19th of August, three days after the unfortunate surrender of Detroit, that series of splendid naval achievements, for which this war was distinguished, was commenced by Capt. Isaac Hull, of the United States' frigate Constitution, who captured the British frigate Guerriere, commanded by Capt. Dacres.

The American frigate was superior in force only by a few guns, but the difference bore no comparison to the disparity of the conflict. The loss of the Constitution was seven killed, and seven wounded, while that on board the Guerriere was fifteen killed, and sixty-three wounded: among the latter was Capt. Dacres. The Constitution sustained so little injury, that she was ready for action the succeeding day; but the British frigate was so much damaged, that she was set on fire and burnt.

16. On the 13th of August, another naval victory was achieved—the United States' frigate Essex, Capt. Porter, falling in with and capturing the British sloop-of-war Alert, after an action of only eight minutes.

This engagement took place off the Grand Bank of Newfoundland. A single broadside from the American frigate so completely riddled the sloop, that, on striking her colors, although she had but three men wounded, she had seven feet of water in her hold. The frigate suffered not the slightest injury.

17. Upon the declaration of war, the attention of the American commander-in-chief, Gen. Dearborn, was turned towards the invasion of Canada, for which eight or ten thousand men, and considerable military stores, were collected, at different points along the Canada line. Skilful officers of the navy were also despatched, for the purpose of arming vessels on Lakes Erie, Ontario, and Champlain, if possible to gain the ascendency there, and to aid the operations of the American forces.

The American troops were distributed into three divisions—one under Gen. Harrison, called the *Northwestern* army; a second under Gen. Stephen Van

Rensselaer, at Lewistown, called the army of the *Centre;* and a third under the commander-in-chief, Gen. Dearborn, in the neighborhood of Plattsburg and Greenbush, called the army of the *North.*

18. Early on the morning of the 13th of October, 1812, a detachment of about one thousand men, from the army of the centre, crossed the river Niagara, and attacked the British on Queenstown heights. This detachment, under the command of Col. Solomon Van Rensselaer, succeeded in dislodging the enemy; but, not being reinforced by the militia from the American side, as was expected, they were ultimately repulsed, and were obliged to surrender. The British general, Brock, was killed during the engagement.

The forces designated to storm the heights, were divided into two columns; one of three hundred militia, under Col. Van Rensselaer; the other of three hundred regulars, under Col. Christie. These were to be followed by Col. Fenwick's artillery, and afterwards the residue of the troops.

Scarcely had Col. Van Rensselaer effected a landing, before he was severely wounded; upon which the troops, now under command of Capt. Wool, advanced to storm the fort. Of this they gained possession; but, at the moment of success, Gen. Brock arrived from Fort George, with a reinforcement of six hundred men. These were gallantly driven back by the Americans. In attempting to rally them, the heroic Brock was killed.

Gen. Van Rensselaer, who had previously crossed over, now returned to hasten the embarkation of the "tardy" militia. But what was his chagrin, to hear more than twelve hundred men, who a little before were panting for the battle, refuse to embark! He urged, entreated, commanded—but all in vain. Meanwhile, the enemy being reinforced, a desperate conflict ensued, and in the end the British were completely victorious. Had, however, but a small part of the "idle men" passed over at the critical moment, when urged by their brave commander, revolutionary history can tell of few nobler achievements than this would have been.

19. On the 17th of October, another naval victory was achieved over an enemy decidedly superior in force, and under circumstances the most favorable to him. This was the capture of the brig Frolic, of twenty-two guns, by the sloop-of-war Wasp.

Capt. Jones had returned from France two weeks after the declaration of war, and, on the 13th of October, again put to sea. On the 17th, he fell in with six merchant ships, under convoy of a brig, and two ships, armed with sixteen guns each. The brig, which proved to be the Frolic, Capt. Whinyates, dropped behind, while the others made sail. At half past eleven, the action began by the enemy's cannon and musketry. In five minutes, the main-top-mast was shot away, and, falling down with the main-top-sail yard across the larboard fore and fore-top-sail, rendered her head yards unmanageable, during the rest of the action. In two minutes more, her gaff and mizzen top-gallant-mast were shot away. The sea being exceedingly rough, the muzzles of the Wasp's guns were sometimes under water.

The English fired as their vessel rose, so that their shot was either thrown away, or touched only the rigging of the Americans; the Wasp, on the contrary, fired as she sunk, and every time struck the hull of her antagonist. The fire of the Frolic was soon slackened, and Capt. Jones determined to board her As the crew leaped on board the enemy's vessel, their surprise can scarcely be imagined, as they found no person on deck, except three officers and the seaman at the wheel. The deck was slippery with blood, and presented a scene of havoc and ruin. The officers now threw down their swords in submission, and Lieut. Biddle, of the Wasp, leaped into the rigging, to haul down the colors, which were still flying. Thus, in forty-three minutes, ended one of the most bloody conflicts recorded in naval history. The loss on board the Frolic was thirty killed and fifty wounded; on board the Wasp five were killed and five slightly wounded. The Wasp and Frolic were both captured the same day, by a British seventy-four, the Poictiers, Capt. Beresford.

20. The above splendid achievement of Capt. Jones was followed, on the 25th of October, by another not much less splendid and decisive, by Commodore Decatur, of the frigate United States, of forty-four guns, who captured the Macedonian off the Western Isles, a frigate of the largest class, mounting forty-nine guns, and manned with three hundred men.

In this action, which continued an hour and a half, the Macedonian lost thirty-six killed, and sixty-eight wounded: on board the United States, seven only were killed, and five wounded. The British frigate lost her main-mast, main-top-mast, and main-yard, and was injured in her hull. The United States suffered so little, that a return to port was unnecessary.

An act of generosity and benevolence, on the part of our brave tars of this victorious frigate, deserves to be honorably recorded.

The carpenter, who was unfortunately killed in the conflict with the Macedonian, had left three small children to the care of a worthless mother. When the circumstance became known to the brave seamen, they instantly made a contribution among themselves, to the amount of eight hundred dollars, and placed it in safe hands, to be appropriated to the education and maintenance of the unhappy orphans.

21. December 29th, a second naval victory was achieved by the Constitution, at this time commanded by Commodore Bainbridge, over the Java, a British frigate of thirty-eight guns, but carrying forty-nine, with four hundred men, commanded by Capt. Lambert, who was mortally wounded.

This action was fought off St. Salvador, and continued nearly two hours, when the Java struck, having lost sixty killed and one hundred and twenty wounded. The Constitution had nine men killed and twenty-five wounded. On the 1st of January, the commander, finding his prize incapable of being brought in, was obliged to burn her.

22. Thus ended the year 1812. With the exception of the naval victories already mentioned, and some others of the same kind, equally honorable to America, nothing important was achieved. Neither of the armies destined for the invasion of Canada had obtained any decisive advantage, or were in possession of any post in that territory. Further preparations, however, were making for its conquest. Naval armaments were collecting on the lakes, and the soldiers, in their winter-quarters, were looking forward to "battles fought and victories won."

23. The military operations of the campaign of 1813 were considerably diversified, extending along the whole northern frontier of the United States. The location of the several divisions of the American forces was as follows:—The army of the west, under Gen. Harrison, was placed near the head of Lake Erie; the army of the centre, under Gen. Dearborn, between the Lakes Ontario and Erie; and the army of the north, under Gen. Hampton, on the shores of Lake Champlain. The British forces in Canada were under the general superintendence of Sir George Provost, under whom Colonels

Proctor and Vincent had in charge the defence of the Upper Provinces; while the care of the Lower Provinces was committed to Gen. Sheaffe.

24. The head-quarters of Gen. Harrison, on the commencement of winter, were at Franklinton, in Ohio. The plan of this general had for its object to concentrate a considerable force at the Rapids, whence he designed to make an attack upon Detroit, which was still in the possession of the British. In the mean while, Gen. Winchester continued at Fort Defiance, with about eight hundred men, chiefly from the most respectable families in Kentucky. Early in January, intimations were received from the inhabitants of the village of Frenchtown, which is situated on the river Raisin, twenty-six miles from Detroit, that a large body of British and Indians were about to concentrate at that place. Exposed as they must be from the presence of a ferocious enemy, they sought protection from the American general. Contrary to the general plan of the commander-in-chief, Winchester resolved to send a force to their relief, and accordingly detached a body of men, with orders to wait at Presque Isle, until joined by the main body.

On reaching the latter place, it was ascertained that a party of British and Indians had already taken possession of Frenchtown. The resolution was immediately taken to attack them, without waiting for the arrival of Winchester. In this attack the Americans were successful, and, having driven the enemy from the place, they encamped on the spot, where they remained until the twentieth, when they were joined by Gen. Winchester. The American force now exceeded 750 men. Here, on the morning of January 22d, the Americans were suddenly attacked by a combined force of British and Indians, under Gen. Proctor. Unfortunately, the Americans were signally routed—many of them were killed, and not far from five hundred were taken prisoners, among whom was Gen. Winchester. After the surrender, nearly all the American prisoners were inhumanly

butchered by the savages, although Proctor had pledged his honor, that their lives and private property should be secure.

Scarcely had the Americans surrendered, than, contrary to express stipulations, the swords of the officers were taken from them, and many of them were stripped almost naked, and robbed. The dead also were stripped and scalped, while the tomahawk put an end at once to such of the wounded as were unable to rise. The prisoners who now remained, with but few exceptions, instead of being guarded by British soldiers, were delivered to the charge of the Indians, to be conducted in the rear of the army to Malden. But few of them, however, ever reached the British garrison, being either inhumanly murdered by the Indians at the time, or reserved to be roasted at the stake, or to be ransomed at an exorbitant charge.

By this bloody tragedy, all Kentucky, observes an historian,* was literally in mourning; for the soldiers thus massacred, tortured, burnt, or denied the common rites of sepulture, were of the most respectable families of the state; many of them young men of fortune and property, with numerous friends and relatives. The remains of these brave youth lay on the ground, beat by the storms of heaven, and exposed to the beasts of the forest, until the ensuing autumn, when their friends and relations ventured to gather up their bleaching bones, and consigned them to the tomb.

Historians do not agree as to the number of American troops. Dr. Holmes states the number at 1100. The force of Proctor consisted, according to this author, of 300 British troops, and 600 Indians.

25. On the 23d of January, the day following the memorable action of Frenchtown, an engagement took place between the Hornet, Capt. James Lawrence, and the British sloop-of-war Peacock, Capt. William Peake, off South America. This action lasted but fifteen minutes, when the Peacock struck.

On surrendering, a signal of distress was discovered on board the Peacock. She had been so much damaged, that, already, she had six feet of water in her hold, and was sinking fast. Boats were immediately despatched for the wounded, and every measure taken, which was practicable, to keep her afloat until the crew could be removed. Her guns were thrown overboard, the shot-holes were plugged, and a part of the Hornet's crew, at the

* Brackenridge.

imminent hazard of their lives, labored incessantly to rescue the vanquished. The utmost efforts of these generous men were, however, vain; the conquered vessel sunk in the midst of them, carrying down nine of her own crew and three of the Americans. With a generosity becoming them, the crew of the Hornet divided their clothing with the prisoners, who were left destitute by the sinking ship. In the action, the Hornet received but a slight injury. The killed and wounded, on board the Peacock, were supposed to exceed fifty.

26. On the 4th of March, 1813, Mr. Madison entered upon his second term of office, as president of the United States, having been re-elected by a considerable majority over De Witt Clinton, of New York, who was supported by the federal electors. George Clinton was elected vice-president: he died, however, soon after, and Elbridge Gerry succeeded him.

27. It having been communicated to the American government, that the emperor of Russia was desirous of seeing an end put to the hostilities between Great Britain and America, and had offered to mediate between the two countries, Messrs. Albert Gallatin, James A. Bayard, and John Quincy Adams, were, early in the spring, 1813, appointed commissioners to Russia, to meet such commissioners as should be sent by the British court, and were empowered to negotiate a treaty of peace and commerce with Great Britain.

28. About the middle of April, Gen. Pike, by order of Gen. Dearborn, embarked, with 1700 men, on board a flotilla, under command of Commodore Chauncey, from Sacket's Harbor, for the purpose of attacking York, the capital of Upper Canada, the great depository of British military stores, whence the western posts were supplied. On the 27th, an attack was successfully made, and York fell into the hands of the Americans, with all its stores.

The command of the troops, one thousand seven hundred, detached for this purpose, was given to Gen. Pike, at his own request. On the 25th, the fleet, under Commodore Chauncey, moved down the lake, with the troops, and, on the 27th, arrived at the place of debarkation, about two miles westward

from York, and one and a half from the enemy's works. The British, consisting of about seven hundred and fifty regulars and five hundred Indians, under General Sheaffe, attempted to oppose the landing, but were thrown into disorder, and fled to their garrison.

General Pike, having formed his men, proceeded towards the enemy's fortifications. On their near approach to the barracks, about sixty rods from the garrison, an explosion of a magazine took place, previously prepared for the purpose, which killed about one hundred of the Americans, among whom was the gallant Pike.

Pike lived to direct his troops, for a moment thrown into disorder, "to move on." This they now did under Col. Pearce; and, proceeding towards the town, took possession of the barracks. On approaching it, they were met by the officers of the Canada militia, with offers of capitulation. At four o'clock, the troops entered the town.

The loss of the British, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, amounted to seven hundred and fifty; the Americans lost, in killed and wounded, about three hundred.

29. The news of the unfortunate occurrence at Frenchtown (*Sec.* 24.) reached Gen. Harrison, while on his march with reinforcements to Gen. Winchester. Finding a further advance of no importance, he took post at the Rapids, where he constructed a fort, which, in honor of the governor of Ohio, he named Fort Meigs. Here, on the first of May, he was besieged by Gen. Proctor, with a force of one thousand regulars and militia, and one thousand two hundred Indians. For nine days, the siege was urged with great zeal; but, finding the capture of the place impracticable, on the 9th, Proctor raised the siege, and retreated to Malden. Gen. Harrison returned to Franklinton, in Ohio, leaving the fort under the care of Gen. Clay.

On the third day of the siege, an officer from the British demanded the surrender of the fort; to which Harrison characteristically replied, "Not, sir, while I have the honor to command."

On the fifth, intelligence was received of the approach of a reinforcement of American troops under Gen. Clay, from Kentucky. Aided by these, a sortie was made upon the British, which proved so disastrous to both, that, for the three following days, hostilities were suspended, and prisoners exchanged. On the ninth, preparations were made to renew the siege; but, sud-

denly, the British general ordered it to be raised, and with his whole force retired.

30. During the remainder of the spring, the war continued along the Canada line, and on some parts of the sea-board; but nothing important was achieved by either power.

The Chesapeake Bay was blockaded by the British, and predatory excursions, by their troops, were made at Havre de Grace, Georgetown, &c. Several villages were burnt, and much property plundered and destroyed. To the north of the Chesapeake, the coast was not exempt from the effects of the war. A strict blockade was kept up at New York. The American frigates United States and Macedonian, and the sloop Hornet, attempted to sail on a cruise from that port, about the beginning of May, but were prevented. In another attempt, they were chased into New London harbor, where they were blockaded by a fleet under Commodore Hardy, for many months. Fort George, in Canada, was taken by the Americans. Sacket's Harbor was attacked by one thousand British, who were repulsed with considerable loss.

31. On the first of June, the American navy experienced no inconsiderable loss, in the capture of the Chesapeake, by the British frigate Shannon, off Boston harbor—a loss the more severely felt, as on board of her fell several brave officers, among whom was her commander, the distinguished and lamented Capt. Lawrence.

Capt. Lawrence had been but recently promoted to the command of the Chesapeake. On his arrival at Boston, to take charge of her, he was informed that a British frigate was lying off the harbor, apparently inviting an attack. Prompted by the ardor which pervaded the service, he resolved to meet the enemy, without sufficiently examining his strength. With a crew chiefly enlisted for the occasion, as that of the Chesapeake had mostly been discharged, on the first of June, he sailed out of the harbor.

The Shannon, observing the Chesapeake put to sea, immediately followed. At half past five, the two ships engaged. By the first broadside, the sailing-master of the Chesapeake was killed, and Lieut. Ballard mortally wounded. Lieut. Brown and Capt. Lawrence were severely wounded at the same time. A second and third broadside, besides adding to the destruction of her officers, so disabled the Chesapeake in her rigging, that her quarter fell on the Shannon's anchor. This accident may be considered as deciding the contest; an opportunity was given the enemy to rake the Chesapeake, and, toward the close of the

action, to board her. Capt. Lawrence, though severely wounded, still kept the deck. In the act of summoning the boarders, a musket ball entered his body, and brought him down. As he was carried below, he issued a last heroic order—"*Don't give up the ship*;" but it was too late to retrieve what was lost; the British boarders leaped into the vessel, and, after a short but bloody struggle, hoisted the British flag.

In this sanguinary conflict, twenty-three of the enemy were killed, and fifty wounded: on board the Chesapeake, about seventy were killed, and eighty-three wounded.

32. The tide of fortune seemed now, for a short time, to turn in favor of Great Britain. On the 14th of August, the Argus, of eighteen guns, another of our national vessels, was captured by the Pelican, of twenty guns.

The Argus had been employed to carry out Mr. Crawford, as minister, to France. After landing him, she proceeded to cruise in the British channel, and, for two months, greatly annoyed the British shipping. At length, that government was induced to send several vessels in pursuit of her. On the 14th of August, the Pelican, a sloop of war, of superior force, discovered her, and bore down to action. At the first broadside, Capt. Allen fell, severely wounded, but remained on deck for some time, when it was necessary to carry him below. After a hard-fought action, the Argus was obliged to surrender, with a loss of six killed and seventeen wounded. On board the Pelican there were but three killed and five wounded. Captain Allen died soon after in England, and was interred with the honors of war.

33. After the loss of the Chesapeake and Argus, victory again returned to the side of America. On the 5th of September following, the British brig Boxer surrendered to the Enterprise, after an engagement of little more than half an hour.

The Enterprise sailed from Portsmouth on the 1st, and was on the 5th descried by the Boxer, which immediately gave chase. After the action had continued for fifteen minutes, the Enterprise ranged ahead, and raked her enemy so powerfully, that in twenty minutes the firing ceased, and the cry of quarter was heard. The Enterprise had one killed and thirteen wounded; but that one was her lamented commander, Lieut. Burrows. He fell at the commencement of the action, but continued to cheer his crew, averring that the flag should never be struck. When the sword of the enemy was presented to him, he exclaimed, "I die contented." The British loss was more considerable. Among their killed was Capt. Blythe These two commanders, both in

the morning of life, were interred beside each other, at Portland, with military honors.

34. During these occurrences on the sea-board, important preparations had been made for decisive measures to the westward, and the general attention was now turned, with great anxiety, towards the movements of the north-western army, and the fleet under command of Commodore Perry, on Lake Erie.

This anxiety, not long after, was, in a measure, dispelled, by a decisive victory of the American fleet over that of the British, on Lake Erie, achieved, after a long and desperate conflict, on the 10th of September.

The American squadron consisted of nine vessels, carrying fifty-four guns; that of the British, of six vessels, and sixty-three guns. The line of battle was formed at eleven, and at a quarter before twelve, the enemy's flag ship, Queen Charlotte, opened a tremendous fire upon the Lawrence, the flag ship of Commodore Perry, which was sustained by the latter ten minutes before she could bring her carronades to bear. At length she bore up and engaged the enemy, making signals to the remainder of the squadron to hasten to her support. Unfortunately, the wind was too light to admit of a compliance with the order, and she was compelled to contend, for two hours, with two ships of equal force. By this time, the brig had become unmanageable, and her crew, excepting four or five, were either killed or wounded.

While thus surrounded with death, and destruction still pouring in upon him, Perry left the brig, now only a wreck, in an open boat, and, heroically waving his sword, passed unhurt to the Niagara, of twenty guns. The wind now rose. Ordering every canvass to be spread, he bore down upon the enemy—passing the enemy's vessels Detroit, Queen Charlotte, and Lady Prevost, on the one side, and the Chippewa and Little Belt on the other, into each of which he poured a broadside,—he at length engaged the Lady Prevost, which received so heavy a fire as to compel her men to retire below.

The remainder of the American squadron, now, one after another, arrived, and, following the example of their intrepid leader, closed in with the enemy, and the battle became general.

Three hours finished the contest, and enabled Perry to announce to Gen. Harrison the capture of the whole squadron, which he did in this modest, laconic, and emphatic style:—"We have met the enemy, and they are ours."

The loss in the contest was great in proportion to the numbers engaged. The Americans had twenty-seven killed and ninety-

six wounded. But the British loss was still greater, being about two hundred in killed and wounded. The prisoners amounted to six hundred, exceeding the whole number of Americans engaged in the action.

35. The Americans being now masters of Lake Erie, a passage to the territory which had been surrendered by Gen. Hull was open to them. With a view of making a descent upon Malden and Detroit, Gen. Harrison called on a portion of the Ohio militia, which, together with 4000 Kentuckians, under Gov. Shelby, and his own regular troops, constituted his force, for the above object.

On the 27th of September, the troops were received on board the fleet, and on the same day reached Malden. But, to their surprise, they found that fortress and the public storehouses burned.

On the following day, the Americans marched in pursuit of Proctor and his troops; and on the 29th entered, and took possession of Detroit.

Leaving Detroit on the second of October, Harrison and Shelby proceeded with 3500 men, selected for the purpose, and, on the fifth, reached the place of Proctor's encampment, which was the Moravian village, on the Thames, about eighty miles from Detroit. The American troops were immediately formed in the order of battle, and the armies engaged with the most determined courage. In this contest, the celebrated Tecumseh was slain. Upon his fall, the Indians immediately fled. This led to the defeat of the whole British force, which surrendered, except about two hundred dragoons, which, with Proctor at their head, were enabled to escape.

Of the British, nineteen regulars were killed, fifty wounded, and six hundred made prisoners. The Indians left one hundred and twenty on the field. The loss of the Americans was upwards of fifty, in killed and wounded. On this field of battle, the latter had the pleasure to retake six brass field pieces, which had been surrendered by Hull; on two of which were inscribed the words, "Surrendered by Burgoyne, at Saratoga."

Tecumseh, who fell in this battle, was in several respects the most celebrated Indian warrior which ever raised an arm against the Americans. "He had been in almost every engagement with the whites, since Harmer's defeat, although at his death he scarcely exceeded forty years of age. Tecumseh had received the stamp of greatness from the hand of nature; and had his lot been cast in a different state of society, he would have shone one of the most distinguished of men. He was endowed with

a powerful mind, with the soul of a hero. There was an uncommon dignity in his countenance and manners; by the former, he could easily be discovered, even after death, among the rest of the slain, for he wore no insignia of distinction. When girded with a silk sash, and told by Gen. Proctor that he was made a brigadier in the British service, for his conduct at Brownstown and Magagua, he returned the present with respectful contempt. Born with no title to command, but his native greatness, every tribe yielded submission to him at once, and no one ever disputed his precedence. Subtle and fierce in war, he was possessed of uncommon eloquence: his speeches might bear a comparison with those of the most celebrated orators of Greece and Rome. His invective was terrible, as may be seen in the reproaches which he applied to Proctor, a few days before his death, in a speech which was found among the papers of the British officers. His form was uncommonly elegant; his stature about six feet, his limbs perfectly proportioned. He was honorably interred by the victors, by whom he was held in much respect, as an inveterate, but magnanimous enemy."*

36. The fall of Detroit put an end to the Indian war in that quarter, and gave security to the frontiers. Gen. Harrison now dismissed a greater part of his volunteers, and, having stationed Gen. Cass at Detroit, with about one thousand men, proceeded, according to his instructions, with the remainder of his forces, to Buffalo, to join the army of the centre.

37. The result of the operations of the north-west, and the victory on Lake Erie, prepared the way to attempt a more effectual invasion of Canada.

Gen. Dearborn having some time before this retired from the service, Gen. Wilkinson was appointed to succeed him as commander-in-chief, and arrived at Sacket's Harbor on the 20th of August. The chief object of his instructions was the capture of Kingston, although the reduction of Canada, by an attack upon Montreal, was the ulterior object of the campaign.

The forces destined for the accomplishment of these purposes were an army of five thousand, at Fort George; two thousand under Gen. Lewis, at Sacket's Harbor; four thousand at Plattsburg, under the command of Gen.

* Brackenridge.

Hampton, which latter, proceeding by the way of Champlain, were to form a junction with the main body, at some place on the river St. Lawrence; and, finally, the victorious troops of Gen. Harrison, which were expected to arrive in season to furnish important assistance.

On the fifth of September, Gen. Armstrong, who had recently been appointed secretary of war, arrived at Sacket's Harbor, to aid in the above project. The plan of attacking Kingston was now abandoned, and it was determined to proceed immediately to Montreal. Unexpected difficulties, however, occurred, which prevented the execution of the plan, and the American force under Wilkinson retired into winter quarters, at French Mills. The forces of Gen. Hampton, after penetrating the country some distance to join Wilkinson, retired again to Plattsburg. The forces of Gen. Harrison were not ready to join the expedition, until the troops had gone into winter quarters.

The forces of Gen. Wilkinson were concentrated, previous to embarkation, at Grenadier Island, between Sacket's Harbor and Kingston, 180 miles from Montreal, reckoned by the river. Owing to tempestuous weather, the fleet was detained some days after the troops were on board; but finally set sail on the 30th.

Unexpected obstacles impeded the progress of the expedition, especially parties of the enemy, which had been stationed at every convenient position on the Canada shore. To disperse these, a body of troops, under command of Gen. Brown, was landed, and directed to march in advance of the boats.

On the 11th, the troops and flotilla having arrived at Williamsburg, just as they were about to proceed, a powerful body of the enemy, 2000 in number, was discovered approaching in the rear. Wilkinson, being too much indisposed to take the command, appointed Gen. Boyd to attack them, in which his troops were assisted by the brigades of Generals Covington and Swartwout.

For three hours, the action was bravely sustained by the opposing forces. Both parties, in the issue, claimed the victory; but neither could, in truth, be said to be entitled to it—the British returning to their encampment, and the Americans to their boats. In this engagement, the loss of the latter was 339, of whom 102 were killed. Gen. Covington was mortally wounded, and died two days after. The British loss was 180.

A few days previous to the battle, as Gen. Harrison had not arrived, Wilkinson despatched orders to Gen. Hampton to meet him, with his army, at St. Regis. On the 12th, a communication was returned from Hampton, in which he declined a compliance with the above orders, on the ground, that the provisions of Wilkinson were not adequate to the wants of both armies, and that it would be impossible to transport provisions from Plattsburg.

On the receipt of this intelligence, a council of war was summoned by Wilkinson, by which it was decided to abandon the attack on Montreal, and to go into winter quarters at French Mills.

Shortly after, Gen. Hampton, learning that the contemplated expedition against Montreal was abandoned, himself paused in his advance towards Montreal, by the way of Chateaugay, and returned to Plattsburg, where he established his winter quarters. Soon after, his health failing, he resigned his commission, and was succeeded in command by Gen. Izard.

Thus ended a campaign, which gave rise to a dissatisfaction proportioned to the high expectations that had been indulged of its success. Public opinion was much divided as to the causes of its failure, and as to the parties to whom the blame was properly to be attached.

38. The proposal of the emperor of Russia to mediate between the United States and Great Britain, has been mentioned. (*Sec.* 27.) This proposal, however, Great Britain thought expedient to decline; but the prince regent offered a direct negotiation, either at London or Gottenburg. The offer was no sooner communicated to our government, than accepted, and Messrs. Henry Clay and Jonathan Russel were appointed, in addition to the commissioners already in Europe, and soon after sailed for Gottenburg. Lord Gambier, Henry Goulbourn, and William Adams, were appointed, on the part of the court of St. James, to meet them. The place of their meeting was first fixed at Gottenburg, but subsequently was changed to Ghent, in Flanders, where the commissioners assembled in August.

39. Soon after the northern armies had gone into winter quarters, as noticed above, the public attention was directed to a war which the Creek Indians, being instigated thereto by the British government, declared against the United States, and which proved exceeding-

ly sanguinary in its progress, during the year 1813, and until the close of the summer of 1814, when Gen. Jackson, who conducted it, on the part of the Americans, having, in several rencounters, much reduced them, and finally and signally defeated them, in the battle of Tohopeka, or Horse-Shoe-Bend, concluded a treaty with them, August 9th, on conditions advantageous to the United States. Having accomplished this service, Gen. Jackson returned to Tennessee, and was soon after appointed to succeed Gen. Wilkinson in the command of the forces at New Orleans.

The commencement of hostilities by the Creeks was an attack upon Fort Mimms, on the 30th of August, 1813, by six hundred Indians, who, taking the fort by surprise, massacred three hundred men, women, and children, excepting seventeen, who alone effected their escape.

On the receipt of this disastrous intelligence, two thousand men from Tennessee, under Gen. Jackson, and 500 under Gen. Coffee, immediately marched to the country of the Creeks. In a series of engagements, first at Tallushatches, next at Talladega, and subsequently at Autossee, Emucfau, and other places, the Creeks were defeated, though with no inconsiderable loss, in several instances, to the Americans.

But notwithstanding these repeated defeats and serious losses, the Creeks remained unsubdued. Still determined not to yield, they commenced fortifying the bend of Tallapoosa river, called by them Tohopeka, but by the Americans Horse-Shoe-Bend. Their principal work consisted of a breast-work, from five to eight feet high, across the peninsula, by means of which nearly one hundred acres of land were rendered admirably secure. Through this breast-work a double row of port-holes were so artfully arranged, that whoever assailed it must be exposed to a double and cross fire from the Indians, who lay behind, to the number of one thousand.

Against this fortified refuge of the infatuated Creeks, Gen. Jackson, having gathered up his forces, proceeded on the 24th of March. On the night of the 26th, he encamped within six miles of the bend. On the 27th, he detached Gen. Coffee, with a competent number of men, to pass the river, at a ford three miles below the bend, for the purpose of preventing the Indians effecting their escape, if inclined, by crossing the river.

With the remainder of his force, Gen. Jackson now advanced to the front of the breast-work, and, at half past ten, planted his artillery on a small eminence, at only a moderate distance.

Affairs being now arranged, the artillery opened a tremendous

fire upon the breast-work, while Gen. Coffee, with his force below, continued to advance towards an Indian village, which stood at the extremity of the peninsula. A well-directed fire across the river, which here is but about one hundred yards wide, drove the Indian inhabitants from their houses up to the fortifications.

At length, finding all his arrangements complete, and the favorite moment arrived, Gen. Jackson led on his now animated troops to the charge. For a short time, an obstinate contest was maintained at the breast-work—muzzle to muzzle through the portholes—when the Americans succeeded in gaining the opposite side of the works. A mournful scene of slaughter ensued. In a short time, the Indians were routed, and the whole plain was strewed with the dead. Five hundred and fifty-seven were found, and a large number were drowned in attempting to escape by the river. Three hundred women and children were taken prisoners. The loss of the Americans was twenty-six killed, and one hundred and seven wounded. Eighteen friendly Cherokees were killed, and thirty-six wounded, and five friendly Creeks were killed, and eleven wounded.

This signal defeat of the Creeks put an end to the war. Shortly after, the remnant of the nation sent in their submission Among these was the prophet and leader, Weatherford. In bold and impressive language, he said—"I am in your power. Do with me what you please. I have done the white people all the harm I could. I have fought them, and fought them bravely. There was a time when I had a choice; I have none now—even hope is ended. Once I could animate my warriors; but I cannot animate the dead. They can no longer hear my voice; their bones are at Tallushatches, Talladega, Emucfau, and Tohopeka. While there was a chance of success, I never supplicated peace; but my people are gone, and I now ask it for my nation and myself."

On the 9th of August, a treaty was made with them by Gen. Jackson. They agreed to yield a portion of their territory as indemnity for the expenses of the war—to allow the opening of roads through their lands—to admit the whites to the free navigation of their rivers—and to take no more bribes from the British.

40. On the 2d of December, the fifteenth congress commenced its second session. The principal objects to which its attention was directed were the enactment of restriction laws, (embargo and non-importation acts) —the subsequent repeal of these acts—the offer of the unprecedented bounty of one hundred and twenty-four dollars to all soldiers who should enlist for five years or

during the war—and an appropriation of half a million of dollars to construct one or more floating steam batteries.

An extra session of congress had been held, extending from May 24th to August 2d, the same year. The principal business of this session was the providing of means to replenish the treasury. This it was at length decided to accomplish by a system of internal duties; and accordingly laws were passed laying taxes on lands, houses, distilled liquors, refined sugars, retailers' licenses, carriages, &c. From this source the sum of five millions and a half of dollars was expected to flow into the treasury; in addition to which, a loan of seven millions and a half was authorized.

Early in the regular session of 1813—1814, an embargo was laid upon all American vessels, with a design to deprive the enemy's ships on the coast of supplies, and to secure more effectually the American shipping from introducing British manufactures. Against such measures the opposers of the war were loud in their complaints, on the ground that they were needless, and highly injurious to the prosperity of the country. Although these acts passed, in the month of April following, owing to important changes in the relative state of the belligerent nations of Europe, they were repealed.

41. The spring of 1814 was distinguished for the loss of the American frigate Essex, Commodore David Porter, which was captured on the 28th of March, in the bay of Valparaiso, South America, by a superior British force.

42. Two other naval engagements took place about this time, both of which resulted in favor of the American flag. The first of these was between the United States' sloop of war Peacock and the British brig Epervier, April 29th; and the second, June 28th, between the sloop Wasp and the English brig Reindeer. Previously to the action with the Reindeer, the Wasp captured seven of the enemy's merchantmen.

The action between the first two mentioned vessels lasted but forty-five minutes. During its continuance, the Epervier had eight men killed, and fifteen wounded. The Peacock escaped with but a single man killed, and with only two wounded. This engagement took place in lat. 27° 47′ north, and long. 30° 9′.

The action between the Wasp and Reindeer was but eighteen

minutes; yet the destruction of life was much greater. The latter vessel lost her commander, Capt. Manners, and twenty-seven men killed, and forty-two wounded. Twice the British attempted to board the Wasp, but were as often repulsed. At length, the American tars boarded the Reindeer, and tore down her colors. The loss of the latter, in killed and wounded, was twenty-six. Their prize was so much injured, that, on the following day, she was burned.

43. Gen. Wilkinson continued encamped with his army at French Mills, (*Sec.* 37,) whither he had retired in November, 1813, until February, 1814, when, by order of the secretary of war, he detached 2000 troops, under Gen. Brown, to protect the Niagara frontier; soon after which, destroying his barracks, he retired with the residue of his forces to Plattsburg.

The British, apprized of this movement, detached a large force, under Col. Scott, which destroyed the public stores, with the arsenal of the Americans, at Malone, which had belonged to the cantonment of French Mills; but, on hearing of the approach of a large American force, they hastily retreated.

44. The movements of Gen. Wilkinson indicating a disposition to attempt the invasion of Canada, a detachment of two thousand British, under Major Hancock, was ordered to take post and fortify themselves at La Colle Mill, near the river Sorel, to defeat the above object. With a view of dislodging this party, Wilkinson, at the head of 4000 men, crossed the Canada lines, on the 30th of March. On the following day, he commenced a cannonade upon the works of the enemy; but finding it impracticable to make an impression on this strong building, he retired with his forces, having lost in the affray upwards of 140 in killed and wounded.

The unfortunate issue of this movement, and the equally unfortunate termination of the last campaign, brought Gen. Wilkinson into such discredit with the American public, that, yielding to the general opinion, the administration suspended him from the command, in which he was succeeded by Gen. Izard. At a subsequent day, Wilkinson was tried before a court martial at Troy, by which he was acquitted, but not without hesitation.

45. For three months following the above movement, the armies of both nations continued inactive. On the part of the British, the war seemed to languish, the nation at home being occupied with events which were transpiring in Europe of a most extraordinary character. But when, at length, the emperor of France had abdicated his empire, and Louis XVIII. was seated upon his legitimate throne, England was at liberty to direct against America the immense force which she had employed in her continental wars. Accordingly, at this time, the British forces were augmented by 14,000 veteran troops, which had fought under Wellington; and, at the same time, a strong naval force was despatched to blockade the American coast, and ravage our maritime towns.

46. It has been already noticed, that Gen. Brown was detached by Wilkinson, with 2000 troops, from French Mills, (*Sec.* 43,) to proceed to the Niagara frontier. For a time, he stopped at Sacket's Harbor; but, at length, proceeded with his army to Buffalo. By the addition of Towson's artillery, and a corps of volunteers, his force was augmented to 3500 effective men.

On the 2d and 3d of July, he crossed the river Niagara, and took possession of the British Fort Erie, which surrendered without resistance. At a few miles distant, in a strong position, at Chippewa, was intrenched an equal number of British troops, under command of Gen. Riall. On the 4th, Gen. Brown approached these works. On the following day, the two armies met in the open field. The contest was obstinate and bloody; but, at length, the Americans proved victorious, while the British retired with the loss of 514 men. The loss of the Americans was 328.

47. Immediately after this defeat, Gen. Riall retired to Burlington Heights. Here, Lieut. Gen. Drummond, with a large force, joined him, and, assuming the command, led back the army towards the American camp. On the 25th, the two armies met at Bridgewater, near the cataract of Niagara, and a most desperate engage-

ment ensued, about sunset, and lasted till midnight. At length, the Americans were left in quiet possession of the field.

The battle of Bridgewater, or Niagara, was one of the most bloody conflicts recorded in modern warfare. The British force engaged fell something short of 5000 men, including 1500 militia and Indians. The force of the Americans was by one third less. The total loss of the British was 878. Generals Drummond and Riall were among the wounded. The Americans lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, 860. Among the killed were eleven officers, and among the wounded, fifty-six. Both Generals Brown and Scott were among the latter. On receiving his wound, Gen. Brown directed Gen. Ripley to assume the command. Unfortunately, the Americans, having no means to remove the British artillery which had been captured, were obliged to leave it on the field. On being apprized of this, the British forthwith returned, and took their artillery again in charge. Owing to this circumstance, the British officers had the hardihood, in their despatches to government, to claim the victory.

48. Gen. Ripley, finding his numbers too much reduced to withstand a force so greatly his superior, deemed it prudent to return to Fort Erie. On the 4th of August, this fort was invested by Gen. Drummond, with 5000 men; and for 49 days the siege was pressed with great zeal; but, at length, the British general was obliged to retire, without having accomplished his object.

The American force was at this time reduced to 1600 men. On the 5th, Gen. Gaines arrived at Erie from Sacket's Harbor, and took the command. On the 15th, a large British force advanced, in three columns, under Colonels Drummond, Fischer, and Scott, against the fort, but were repulsed with the signal loss of 57 killed, 319 wounded, and 539 missing. Among the killed were Colonels Drummond and Scott.

For some time following this rencontre, both armies were inactive. But, at length, the distressed state of the besieged Americans in the fort attracting the attention of government, a force of five thousand, under Gen. Izard, was ordered from Plattsburg to proceed to their relief.

On the 17th of September, Gen. Brown, who had recovered from his wounds, and had resumed the command of the fort, ordered a sortie, in which the Americans were so successful, that Gen. Drummond was obliged to raise the siege, and to retire with the loss of a great quantity of artillery and ammunition, and of 1000 men, which were his number of killed, wounded, and prisoners.

Shortly after, the troops under Gen. Izard arriving, the Americans were able to commence offensive operations. They, therefore, leaving only a moderate garrison in the fort, now advanced towards Chippewa, where Drummond had taken post. Near this place a partial battle occurred on the 20th of October, in which the Americans so far gained the advantage as to cause the enemy to retire.

49. While these events were transpiring in the north, the public attention was irresistibly drawn to the movements of the enemy, on the sea-board. About the middle of August, between fifty and sixty British sail arrived in the Chesapeake, with troops destined for the attack of Washington, the capital of the United States. On the 23d of August, six thousand British troops, commanded by Gen. Ross, forced their way to that place, and burnt the capitol, president's house, and executive offices. Having thus accomplished an object highly disgraceful to the British arms, and wantonly burned public buildings, the ornament and pride of the nation, the destruction of which could not hasten the termination of the war—on the 25th they retired, and, by rapid marches, regained their shipping, having lost, during the expedition, nearly one thousand men.

The troops under Gen. Ross were landed at Benedict, on the Patuxent, forty-seven miles from Washington. On the 21st, they moved towards Nottingham, and the following day, reached Marlborough. A British flotilla, commanded by Cockburn, consisting of launches and barges, ascended the river at the same time, keeping on the right flank of the army. The day following, on approaching the American flotilla of Commodore Barney, which had taken refuge high up the river, twelve miles from Washington, some sailors, left on board the flotilla for the purpose, should it be necessary, set fire to it, and fled.

On the arrival of the British army at Bladensburg, six miles from Washington, Gen. Winder, commander of the American forces, chiefly militia collected for the occasion, ordered them to engage the enemy. The principal part of the militia, however, fled, at the opening of the contest. Commodore Barney, with a few eighteen pounders, and about four hundred men, made a gallant resistance; but, being overpowered by numbers, and himself wounded, he and a part of his brave band were compelled to surrender themselves prisoners of war.

From Bladensburg, Gen. Ross urged his march to Washington,

where he arrived at about 8 o'clock in the evening. Having stationed his main body at the distance of a mile and a half from the capital, he entered the city, at the head of about seven hundred men, soon after which, he issued his orders for the conflagration of the public buildings. With the capitol were consumed its valuable libraries, and all the furniture, and articles of taste and value, in that and in the other buildings. The great bridge across the Potomac was burned, together with an elegant hotel, and other private buildings.

50. The capture of Washington was followed, September 12th, by an attack on Baltimore, in which the American forces, militia, and inhabitants of Baltimore, made a gallant defence. Being, however, overpowered by a superior force, they were compelled to retreat; but they fought so valiantly, that the attempt to gain possession of the city was abandoned by the enemy, who, during the night of Tuesday, 13th, retired to their shipping, having lost, among their killed, Gen. Ross, the commander-in-chief of the British troops.

The British army, after the capture of Washington, having re-embarked on board the fleet in the Patuxent, Admiral Cochrane moved down that river, and proceeded up the Chesapeake. On the morning of the 11th of September, he appeared at the mouth of the Patapsco, fourteen miles from Baltimore, with a fleet of ships of war and transports, amounting to fifty sail.

On the next day, 12th, land forces, to the number of six thousand, were landed at North Point, and, under the command of Gen. Ross, commenced their march towards the city. In anticipation of the landing of the troops, Gen. Stricker was despatched with three thousand two hundred men from Baltimore, to keep the enemy in check.

On the 12th, a battle was fought by the two armies. Early in the engagement, a considerable part of Gen. Stricker's troops retreated in confusion, leaving him scarcely one thousand four hundred men, to whom was opposed the whole body of the enemy. An incessant fire was continued from half past two o'clock, till a little before four, when Gen. Stricker, finding the contest unequal, and that the enemy outflanked him, retreated upon his reserve, which was effected in good order.

The loss of the Americans, in killed and wounded, amounted to one hundred and sixty-three, among whom were some of the most respectable citizens of Baltimore.

The enemy made his appearance, the next morning, in front of the American intrenchments, at a distance of two miles from the city, showing an intention of renewing the attack.

In the mean time, an attack was made on Fort M'Henry, from frigates, bombs, and rocket vessels, which continued through the day, and the greater part of the night, doing, however, but little damage.

In the course of the night of Tuesday, Admiral Cochrane held a communication with the commander of the land forces, and, the enterprise of taking the city being deemed impracticable, the troops were re-embarked; and the next day, the fleet descended the bay, to the great joy of the released inhabitants.

51. The joy experienced in all parts of the United States, on account of the brave defence of Baltimore, had scarcely subsided, when intelligence was received of the signal success of the Americans at Plattsburg, and on Lake Champlain. The army of Sir George Prevost, amounting to fourteen thousand men, was compelled by Gen. Macomb to retire from the former, and the enemy's squadron, commanded by Commodore Downie, was captured by Commodore Macdonough on the latter.

Towards the close of the winter of 1814, Gen. Wilkinson, with his army, removed from their winter-quarters at French Mills, and took station at Plattsburg. Gen. Wilkinson leaving the command of the army, Gen. Izard succeeded him at this place By September, the troops at Plattsburg were diminished, by detachments withdrawn to other stations, to one thousand five hundred men.

In this state of the forces, it was announced that Sir George Prevost, governor-general of Canada, with an army of fourteen thousand men, completely equipped, and accompanied by a numerous train of artillery, was about making a descent on Plattsburg.

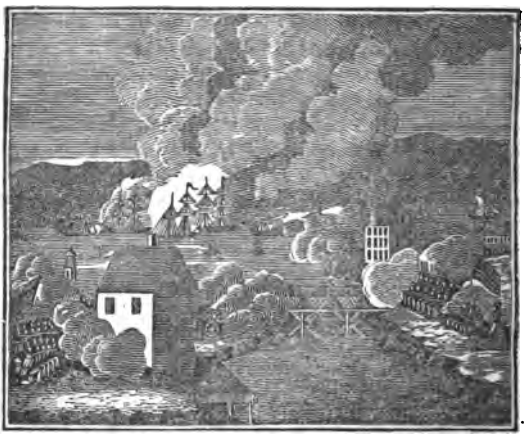
At this time, both the Americans and British had a respectable naval force on Lake Champlain; but that of the latter was considerably the superior, amounting to ninety-five guns, and one thousand and fifty men, while the American squadron carried but eighty-six guns, and eight hundred and twenty-six men.

On the 11th of September, while the American fleet was lying off Plattsburg, the British squadron was observed bearing down upon it in order of battle.

Commodore Macdonough, ordering his vessels cleared for action, gallantly received the enemy. An engagement ensued, which lasted two hours and twenty minutes. By this time, the enemy was silenced, and one frigate, one brig, and two sloops of war, fell into the hands of the Americans Several British

galleys were sunk, and a few others escaped. The loss of the Americans was fifty-two killed, and fifty-eight wounded; of the British, eighty-four killed, and one hundred and ten wounded.

Previously to this eventful day, Sir George Prevost, with his army, arrived in the vicinity of Plattsburg. In anticipation of this event, Gen. Macomb made every preparation, which time and means allowed, and called in to his assistance considerable numbers of the militia.



In the sight of these two armies, the rival squadrons commenced their contest. And, as if their engagement had been a preconcerted signal, and as if to raise still higher the solemn grandeur of the scene, Sir George Prevost now led up his forces against the American works, and began throwing upon them shells, balls, and rockets.

At the same time, the Americans opened a severe and destructive fire from their forts. Before sunset, the temporary batteries of Sir George Prevost were all silenced, and every attempt of the enemy to cross from Plattsburg to the American works was repelled. At nine o'clock, perceiving the attainment of his object impracticable, the British general hastily withdrew his forces, diminished by killed, wounded, and deserted, two thousand five hundred. At the same time, he abandoned vast quantities of military stores, and left the inhabitants of Plattsburg to take care of the sick and wounded of his army, and the

"star-spangled banner" to wave in triumph over the waters of Champlain.

52. The opposition of the New England representatives in congress to the declaration of war has been noticed. (*Sec.* 12.) In this opposition, a great majority of their constituents coincided; and, during the progress of the war, that opposition became confirmed, and apprehensions were indulged that, in consequence of the ill-management of the general government, a crisis was forming, which might involve the country in ruin.

Under these apprehensions, in October, 1814, the legislature of Massachusetts recommended the meeting of a convention from the New England states. This measure, though strongly opposed, was adopted by that body. Delegates were accordingly chosen. This example was followed by Rhode Island and Connecticut. Vermont refused, and New Hampshire neglected to send.

On the 15th of December, these delegates, together with two elected by counties in New Hampshire, and one similarly elected in Vermont, met at Hartford. After a session of near three weeks, they published a report, in which, after dwelling upon the public grievances felt by the New England states particularly, and by the country at large, in no small degree, they proceeded to suggest several alterations of the federal constitution, with a view to their adoption by the respective states of the Union.

These alterations consisted of seven articles:—*first*, that representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned to the number of free persons;—*secondly*, that no new state shall be admitted into the Union, without the concurrence of two thirds of both houses;—*thirdly*, that congress shall not have power to lay an embargo for more than sixty days;—*fourthly*, that congress shall not interdict commercial intercourse, without the concurrence of two thirds of both houses;—*fifthly*, that war shall not be declared without the concurrence of a similar majority;—*sixthly*, that no person, who shall be hereafter naturalized, shall be eligible as a member of the senate or house of representatives, or hold any civil office under the authority of the United States; and, *seventhly*, that no person shall be elected twice to the presidency

nor the president be elected from the same state two terms in succession.

The conclusion of a treaty of peace with Great Britain, not long after, being announced, another convention was not called; and, on the submission of the above amendments of the constitution to the several states, they were rejected.

53. In the month of December, a British fleet of sixty sail, having arrived on the coast east of the Mississippi, landed fifteen thousand troops. These, on the 8th of January, 1815, under command of Sir Edward Packenham, attacked the Americans, amounting to about six thousand, chiefly militia, in their intrenchments, before New Orleans. After an engagement of more than an hour, the enemy, having lost their commander-in-chief, and Maj. Gen. Gibbs, and having been cut to pieces in an almost unexampled degree, fled in confusion, leaving their dead and wounded on the field of battle.

During several preliminary engagements, Gen. Jackson, now commanding at New Orleans, had been diligently employed in preparations to defend the place. His front was a straight line of one thousand yards, defended by upwards of three thousand nfantry and artillerists. The ditch contained five feet of water, and his front, from having been flooded by opening the levees, and by frequent rains, was rendered slippery and muddy. Eight distinct batteries were judiciously disposed, mounting in all twelve guns of different calibers. On the opposite side of the river was a strong battery of fifteen guns.

On the morning of the 8th of January, General Packenham brought up his forces, amounting to twelve thousand men, to the attack. The British deliberately advanced in solid columns, over an even plain, in front of the American intrenchments, the men carrying, besides their muskets, fascines, and some of them ladders.

A solemn silence now prevailed through the American lines, until the enemy approached within reach of the batteries, which at that moment opened an incessant and destructive cannonade. The enemy, notwithstanding, continued to advance, closing up their ranks as fast as they were opened by the fire of the Americans.

At length, they came within reach of the musketry and rifles. The extended American line now unitedly presented one sheet of fire, and poured in upon the British columns an unceasing tide of death. Hundreds fell at every discharge, and by columns were swept away.

Being unable to stand the shock, the British became disordered and fled. In an attempt to rally them, Gen. Packenham was killed. Generals Gibbs and Kean succeeded in pushing forward their columns a second time, but the second approach was still more fatal than the first. The fires again rolled from the American batteries, and from thousands of muskets. The advancing columns again broke and fled; a few platoons only reached the edge of the ditch, there to meet a more certain destruction. In a third but unavailing attempt to lead up their troops, Generals Gibbs and Kean were severely wounded, the former mortally.

The field of battle now exhibited a scene of extended carnage. Seven hundred brave soldiers were sleeping in death, and one thousand four hundred were wounded. Five hundred were made prisoners—making a loss to the British, on this memorable day, of near three thousand men. The Americans lost in the engagement only seven killed, and six wounded.

The enemy now sullenly retired, and, on the night of the 18th, evacuated their camp, and, with great secrecy, embarked on board their shipping.

54. The news of the victory at New Orleans spread with haste through the United States, and soon after was followed by the still more welcome tidings of a treaty of peace, which was signed at Ghent, on the 24th of December, 1814. On the 17th of February, this treaty was ratified by the president and senate.

Upon the subjects for which the war had been professedly declared, the treaty, thus concluded, was silent. It provided only for the suspension of hostilities—the exchange of prisoners—the restoration of territories and possessions obtained by the contending powers, during the war—the adjustment of unsettled boundaries—and for a combined effort to effect the entire abolition of traffic in slaves.

But whatever diversity of opinion had prevailed about the justice or policy of the war—or now prevailed about the merits of the treaty—all parties welcomed the return of peace. The soldier gladly exchanged the toils of the camp for the rest of his home; the mariner once more spread his canvass to the wind, and, fearless of molestation, joyfully stretched his way on the ocean; and the yeomanry of the land, unaccustomed to the din of arms, gladly returned to their wonted care of the field and the flock.

55. The treaty with England was followed, on the 30th of June, 1815, by a treaty with the dey of Algiers, concluded at Algiers, at that time, by William Shaler

and Commodore Stephen Decatur, agents for the United States.

The war, which thus ended by treaty, was commenced by the dey himself, as early as the year 1812. At that time, the American consul, Mr. Lear, was suddenly ordered to depart from Algiers, on account of the arrival of a cargo of naval and military stores, for the regency of Algiers, in fulfilment of treaty stipulations, which, the dey alleged, were not such, in quantity or quality, as he expected. At the same time, depredations were commenced upon our commerce. Several American vessels were captured and condemned, and their crews subjected to slavery.

Upon a representation of the case, by the president, to congress, that body formally declared war against the dey in March. Soon after, an American squadron sailed for the Mediterranean, captured an Algerine brig, and a forty-four gun frigate; and, at length, appeared before Algiers.

The respectability of the American force, added to the two important victories already achieved, had prepared the way for the American commissioners to dictate a treaty, upon such a basis as they pleased. Accordingly, the model of a treaty was sent to the dey, who signed it. By this treaty, the United States were exempted from paying tribute in future; captured property was to be restored by the dey; prisoners to be delivered up without ransom, &c. &c.

56. The treaty with Great Britain, which ended the war, left the subject of commercial intercourse between the two nations to future negotiation. In the summer following the close of the war, plenipotentiaries, respectively appointed by the two countries for that purpose, met at London, and, on the 3d of July, signed "a convention, by which to regulate the commerce between the territories of the United States and of his Britannic majesty."

This convention provided for a reciprocal liberty of commerce between the two countries—for an equalization of duties on importations and exportations from either country to the other—and for the admission of American vessels to the principal settlements of the British dominions in the East Indies, viz. Madras, Calcutta, Bombay, &c. Of this convention, the president spoke in terms of approbation, in his message to congress; but by a large portion of the community it was received with coldness, from an apprehension that it would operate unfavorably to America, and would seriously abridge her commerce. The convention was to be binding only for four years.

57. By the second article of the treaty with Great Britain, it was agreed, that all vessels, taken by either power, within twelve days from the exchange of ratifications, between twenty-three degrees and fifty degrees of north latitude, should be considered lawful prizes. A longer period was stipulated for more distant latitudes. Within the time limited by this article, several actions took place, and several vessels of various descriptions were captured by each of the belligerents. The frigate President was taken January 15th, 1815, by a British squadron; the British ships Cyane, Levant, and Penguin, were captured by the Americans.

58. The attention of congress during their session in 1815—16, was called to a bill, which had for its object the incorporation of a national bank. In the discussion which followed, much diversity of opinion was found to prevail, not only as to the constitutional power of congress to establish such an institution, but also as to the principles upon which it should be modelled. After weeks of animated debate, a bill, incorporating the "*Bank of the United States*," with a capital of thirty-five millions of dollars, passed, and on Wednesday, April 10th, received the signature of the president.

Of the stock of the bank, seven millions were to be subscribed by the United States, the remaining twenty-eight by individuals. The affairs of the corporation were to be managed by twenty-five directors, five of whom were to be chosen by the president, with the advice and consent of the senate; the remainder to be elected by the stockholders, at the banking-house in Philadelphia. The charter of the bank is to continue in force until the 3d of March, 1836.

59. In December, 1816, INDIANA became an independent state, and was received into the Union.

Detached places in Indiana were settled by the French, upwards of a century ago. The exact period, at which the first settlement was made, is uncertain.

In 1763, the territory was ceded by France to England. By the treaty of Greenville, in 1795, the United States obtained of the Indians several small grants of land within this territory; and, in subsequent years, still more extensive tracts. During

the war with England, which broke out in 1812, Indiana was the scene of many Indian depredations, and of many unusually severe battles between the hostile tribes and the troops of the United States. Until 1801, Indiana formed a part of the great north-western territory; but, at that date, it was erected into a territorial government, with the usual powers and privileges. In December, 1815, the inhabitants amounting to sixty thousand, the legislature petitioned congress for admission into the Union, and the privilege of forming a state constitution. A bill for this purpose passed congress, in April, 1816; a convention of delegates met in conformity to it, by which a constitution was adopted, and Indiana became an independent state, and a member of the Union, in December following.

60. 1817. On Wednesday, February 12th, the votes for Mr. Madison's successor were counted in the presence of both houses of congress, when it appeared that James Monroe was elected president, and Daniel D. Tompkins vice-president of the United States, for the four years from and after the 4th of the ensuing March.

NOTES.

61. MANNERS. The only noticeable change of manners, which seems to have taken place during this period, arose from the spirit of pecuniary *speculation*, which pervaded the country during the war. Money was borrowed with facility, and fortunes were often made in a day. Extravagance and profligacy were, to some extent, the consequence. The return of peace, and the extensive misfortunes which fell upon every part of the community, counteracted these vices, and restored more sober and industrious habits.

62. RELIGION. During this period, extensive revivals of religion prevailed, and liberal and expanded plans were devised and commenced for the promotion of Christianity. Several theological institutions were founded, missionary and Bible societies were established, and a great call for ministers of the gospel was heard.

63. TRADE AND COMMERCE. During this period, trade and commerce were crippled by foreign restric-

tions, our own acts of non-intercourse, and, at length, by the war with England. During this war, our carrying trade was destroyed; nor was it restored by the peace of 1815.

On the return of peace, immense importations were made from England, the country being destitute of English merchandise. The market was soon glutted, prices fell, and extensive bankruptcies were the consequence.

64. Agriculture. Agriculture, during this period, cannot be said to have made great advances.

An excessive disposition in the people for trade and speculation, drew off the attention of the more intelligent and active part of the community, and directed much of the capital of the country to other objects. Upon the return of peace, however, when mercantile distresses overspread the land, agriculture was again resorted to, as one of the surest means of obtaining a livelihood. Men of capital, too, turned their attention to farming; agricu tural societies were established in all parts of the country; more enlightened methods of culture were introduced, and agriculture became not only one of the most profitable, but one of the most popular objects of pursuit.

65. Arts and Manufactures. During the war which occurred in this period, the intercourse with England, and other places, being stopped, the country was soon destitute of those articles which had been supplied by English manufactories. Accordingly, the people began to manufacture for themselves. Extensive manufacturing establishments were started for almost every sort of merchandise. Such was their success at the outset, that an immense capital was soon invested in them, and the country began to be supplied with almost every species of manufacture from our own establishments. After the peace, the country being inundated with British goods, these establishments suffered the severest embarrassments, and many of them were entirely broken down. A considerable portion of them, however, were maintained, and continued to flourish.

66. Population. At the expiration of Mr. Madison's term of office, in 1817, the number of inhabitants in

the United States was about nine millions five hundred thousand.

67. EDUCATION. The pecuniary embarrassments experienced throughout the country, during the latter part of this period, sensibly affected some institutions devoted to science and benevolence, especially those which depend, in part, upon the yearly contributions of the patrons of learning and religion, for the means of support. In several of the higher seminaries, the number of students was, for a time, diminished. Nevertheless, parochial schools, academies, and colleges, upon the whole, continued to increase, and to qualify many for the common and higher professions of life.

A theological institution was established at Princeton, New Jersey, in 1812, by the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church. In 1821, the theological seminary of the Associate Reformed Church, in New York, was united to that of Princeton, and its library, consisting of four thousand volumes, which cost seventeen thousand dollars, was transferred to the latter place. This seminary has three professors, and, in 1821, had seventy-three students.

During the same year, Hamilton College was incorporated at Clinton, New York: it has been liberally patronized by the legislature, and by individuals.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD XI.

DISTINGUISHED FOR MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION.

Extending from the Inauguration of President Monroe, 1817, to March, 1825.

Sec. 1. On the 4th of March, 1817, Mr. Monroe took the oath prescribed by the constitution, and entered upon the duties of president of the United States.

The condition of the country, on the accession of Mr. Monroe to the presidency, was, in several respects, more prosperous and happy, than on the accession of his predecessor. Not only had war ceased, and the political asperity excited by it given place to better feelings, but efforts were made, in every section of the Union, to revive those plans of business which the war had nearly annihilated. The country had suffered too much, however, to regain immediately its former prosperity. Commerce was far from being flourishing; a considerable part of the legitimate trade was in the hands of foreigners; many ships were lying unemployed, and the ship-building in many ports had nearly ceased. The manufacturing establishments, which had not been entirely broken down, were sustaining a precarious existence. Foreign merchandise was inundating the country; and the specie, borrowed in Europe for the national bank, at an excessive premium, as well as that which was previously in the country, was rapidly leaving it to pay the balance of trade against us. In his inaugural address, however, the president spoke in animating terms of the happy state of the country, and of its prospects of regaining, at no distant period, that measure of prosperity, which, in former years, it had enjoyed.

2. The senate having been convened at the same time, a cabinet was formed under the new admin-

tion. The department of state was intrusted to Mr. Adams. Mr. Crawford was continued in the treasury. Mr. Calhoun was appointed secretary of war, and Smith Thompson was placed over the department of the navy.

3. In the summer and autumn following his inauguration, the president made a tour through the northern and eastern states of the Union.

The objects of this tour were connected with the national interests. Congress had appropriated large sums of money for the fortification of the sea-coast, and inland frontiers, for the establishment of naval docks, and for increasing the navy. The superintendence of these works belonged to the president. Solicitous to discharge his duty, in reference to them, with judgment, fidelity, and economy, he was induced to visit the most important points along the sea-coast and in the interior, from a conviction of being better able to direct, in reference to them, with the knowledge derived from personal observation, than by means of information communicated to him by others.

4. On the 11th of December, the state of MISSISSIPPI was acknowledged by congress as sovereign and independent, and was admitted to the Union.

The first European who visited the present state of Mississippi, appears to have been Ferdinand de Soto, a native of Badajoz, in Spain, who landed on the coast of Florida on the 25th of May, 1539. He spent three years in the country, searching for gold, but at length died, and was buried on the banks of the Mississippi, May, 1542.

In 1683, M. de Salle descended the Mississippi, and gave the name of *Louisiana* to the country. In consequence of this, the French claimed to have jurisdiction over it. In 1716, they formed a settlement at the Natchez, and built a fort, which they named Rosalie. Other settlements were effected in subsequent years. The French settlements were, however, seriously disturbed by the Indians, particularly by the Natchez, once the most powerful of all the southern tribes.

The French retained an acknowledged title to the country on the east side of the Mississippi, until the treaty of 1763, when they ceded their possessions east of that river to the English. By the treaty of 1783, Great Britain relinquished the Floridas to Spain without specific boundaries; and at the same time ceded to the United States all the country north of the thirty-first degree of latitude. The Spaniards retained possession of the Natchez, and the ports north of the thirty-first degree, until 1798, when they finally abandoned them to the United States.

In the year 1800, the territory between the Mississippi and the

western boundary of Georgia, was erected into a distinct territorial government. By treaty at Fort Adam, in 1801, the Choctaw Indians relinquished to the United States a large body of land, and other cessions have since been made. On the 1st of March, 1817, congress authorized the people of the western part of Mississippi territory to form a constitution and state government. A convention met in July, 1817, by which a constitution was formed, and in December following, Mississippi was admitted into the Union as a separate state.

5. In the course of the same month, an expedition which had been set on foot by a number of adventurers from different countries, against East and West Florida, was terminated by the troops of the United States. These adventurers claimed to be acting under the authority of some of the South American colonies, and had formed an establishment at Amelia Island, a Spanish province, then the subject of negotiation between the United States and Spain. Their avowed object being an invasion of the Floridas, and of course an invasion of a part of the United States, the American government deemed itself authorized, without designing any hostility to Spain, to take possession of Amelia Island, their head-quarters.

A similar establishment had previously been formed at Galvezton, a small island on the coast of the Texas, claimed by the United States. From both of these places privateers were fitted out, which greatly annoyed our regular commerce. Prizes were sent in, and, by a pretended court of admiralty, condemned and sold. Slaves, in great numbers, were shipped through these islands to the United States, and through the same channel extensive clandestine importations of goods were made. Justly apprehending the results of these establishments, if suffered to proceed unmolested, the executive took early measures to suppress them. Accordingly, a naval force, with the necessary troops, was despatched, under command of Captains Henly and Bankhead, to whom Amelia Island was surrendered, on the 24th of December, without the effusion of blood. The suppression of Galvezton followed soon after.

6. Several bills of importance passed congress, during their session, in the winter of 1817–1818; a bill allowing to the members of the senate and house of representatives the sum of eight dollars per day, during

their attendance; a second, in compliance with the recommendation of the president, abolishing the internal duties; and a third, providing, upon the same recommendation, for the indigent officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army.

7. In April, 1818, ILLINOIS adopted a state constitution, and in December following was admitted as a member of the Union

Illinois derives its name from its principal river, which, in the language of the Indians, signifies *the river of men*. The first settlements, like those of Indiana, were made by the French, and were the consequence of the adventurous enterprises of M. de la Salle, in search of the Mississippi. The first settlements were the villages of Kaskaskia and Cahokia. In the beginning of the eighteenth century, the settlements of Illinois were represented to have been in a flourishing condition. But subsequently they in a great measure declined.

From the beginning to the middle of the eighteenth century, little was heard of the settlements of the French on the banks of the Illinois. About 1749, the French began to fortify the Wabash and Illinois, in order to resist the British. In 1762, all the country to the east of the Mississippi was ceded to the latter power, and consequently Illinois passed under the British dominion. At the peace of 1783, Great Britain renounced its claims of sovereignty over this country, as well as over the United States. Virginia, however, and some other states, claimed the whole country north and west of the Ohio; but at the instance of congress, a cession of these claims was made to the general government. Illinois remained a part of Indiana until 1809, when a distinct territorial government was established for it. In 1818, the people formed a constitution, and it is now one of the United States.

8. Early after the conclusion of this session of congress, the president, in pursuance of his determination to visit such parts of the United States as were most exposed to the naval and military forces of an enemy, prepared to survey the Chesapeake bay, and the country lying on its extensive shores.

In the month of May, he left Washington, accompanied by the secretary of war and the secretary of the navy, with other gentlemen of distinction. On his arrival at Annapolis, the president and his suite minutely examined the waters contiguous, in reference to their fitness for a naval depot. Embarking at this

place on board a vessel, he further examined the coast, and thence proceeded to Norfolk. Having at length accomplished the principal object of his tour, in the examination of the Chesapeake bay, he returned to Washington, June 17th, through the interior of Virginia. The respectful and affectionate demonstrations of attachment paid to him during his northern tour were renewed in this.

9. On the 27th of May, 1818, a treaty, concluded with Sweden, at Stockholm, on the 4th of September, 1816, by Mr. Russel, minister plenipotentiary to that court, was ratified by the president and senate, on the part of the United States. The same was ratified by the king of Sweden on the 24th of the following July.

This treaty provided for maintaining peace and friendship between the two countries—reciprocal liberty of commerce—equalization of duties, &c. &c. The treaty was to continue in force for eight years from the exchange of ratifications.

10. During the year 1818, a war was carried on between the Seminole Indians and the United States, which terminated in the complete discomfiture of the former.

The Indians, denominated *Seminole* Indians, inhabited a tract of country partly within the limits of the United States, but a greater part of which lied within the boundaries of the Floridas. Not a few Creeks, dissatisfied with the treaty of 1814, (see *Period* X. *Sec.* 39,) had fled to the Seminoles, carrying with them feelings of hostility against the United States.

These feelings were much strengthened by foreign white emissaries, who had taken up their residence among them for the purpose of trade. At length, several outrages being committed by the Indians upon the border inhabitants of the United States, the secretary of war ordered Gen. Gaines to remove, at his discretion, such Indians as were still on the lands ceded to the United States by the Creeks in 1814.

The execution of this order roused the Indians, who, in great numbers, invested Fort Scott, where Gen. Gaines was confined, with 600 men.

Information of this state of things being communicated to the department of war, Gen. Jackson was ordered, December 26th, to take the field, and directed, if he should deem the force with Gen. Gaines, amounting in all to 1800 men, insufficient to cope with the enemy, "to call on the executives of the adjacent states for such an additional militia force as he might deem requisite."

On the receipt of this order, Gen. Jackson prepared to comply; but, instead of calling upon the executives of the neighboring states, especially upon the governor of Tennessee, who lived near his residence, he addressed a circular to the patriots of West Tennessee, inviting one thousand of them to join his standard.

This call being promptly obeyed, Gen. Jackson, with these troops and a body of friendly Creeks, entered upon the Seminole war.

Deeming it necessary, for the subjugation of the Seminoles, to enter Florida, Gen. Jackson marched upon St. Marks, a feeble Spanish garrison, in which some Indians had taken refuge. Of this garrison, Gen. Jackson quietly took possession, and occupied it as an American post. At St. Marks was found Alexander Arbuthnot, who was taken prisoner and put in confinement. At the same time were taken two Indian chiefs, one of whom pretended to possess the spirit of prophecy; they were hung without trial. St. Marks being garrisoned by American troops, the army marched to Suwaney river, on which they found a large Indian village, which was consumed, after which the army returned to St. Marks, bringing with them Robert C. Ambrister, who had been taken prisoner on their march to Suwaney. During the halt of the army for a few days at St. Marks, a general court martial was called, before which charges were made against Ambrister and Arbuthnot. Both were adjudged guilty, and the former was sentenced to be *shot*—the latter to be *hung*. Subsequently, however, the sentence in respect to Ambrister was reconsidered, and he was sentenced to be whipped and confined to hard labor. This decision Gen. Jackson reversed, and ordered both to be executed according to the *first* sentence of the court.

At St. Marks, Gen. Jackson, being informed that the Spanish governor of Pensacola was favoring the Indians, took up his march for the capital of that province, before which, after a march of twenty days, he appeared. This place was taken with scarcely a show of resistance—a new government was established for the province, the powers of which were vested partly in military officers, and partly in citizens of the province. Gen. Jackson now announced to the secretary that the Seminole war was closed, and returned to his residence at Nashville. Some time after, the American executive, deeming the longer possession of the Spanish forts unnecessary to the peace of the country, and inconsistent with good faith to Spain, directed them to be restored, and accompanied the restoration with the reasons which had led to their occupation.

The measures adopted by Gen. Jackson in the prosecution of this war—particularly his appeal to the people of West Tennessee—his conduct in relation to the trial and execution of Arbuthnot and Ambrister—and his occupation of St. Marks and Pensacola—excited strong sensations in the bosoms of a considerable

portion of the American people. During the session of congress in the winter of 1818—1819, these subjects were extensively and eloquently debated. By the military committee of the house, a report was presented, censuring the conduct of Gen. Jackson; but, after an elaborate examination of the case, the house, by a majority of one hundred and eight to sixty-two, refused its concurrence. Towards the close of the session, a report unfavorable to Gen. Jackson was also brought forward in the senate, but no vote of censure or resolution was attached, and no discussion of its merits was had.

11. On the 28th of January, 1819, a convention between Great Britain and the United States, concluded at London, October 20th, 1818, and ratified by the Prince Regent on the 2d of November following, was ratified by the president of the United States.

By the first article of this convention, the citizens of the United States have liberty, in common with the subjects of Great Britain, to take fish on the southern, western, and northern coast of Newfoundland, &c. The second article establishes the northern boundaries of the United States from the Lake of the Woods to the Stony Mountains. By the fourth article, the commercial convention between the two countries, concluded at London, in 1815, is extended for the term of ten years longer, &c. &c.

12. On the 22d of February, following, a treaty was concluded at Washington, by John Quincy Adams and Luis de Onis, by which East and West Florida, with all the islands adjacent, &c., were ceded by Spain to the United States.

By this treaty, the western boundary between the United States and Spain was settled. A sum not exceeding five millions of dollars is to be paid by the United States out of the proceeds of sales of lands in Florida, or in stock, or money, to citizens of the United States, on account of Spanish spoliations and injuries. To liquidate the claims, a board was to be constituted by the government of the United States, of American citizens, to consist of three commissioners, who should report within three years.

13. On the 2d of March, 1819, the government of the ARKANSAS Territory was organized by an act of congress.

The earliest settlement within the limits of the territory of Arkansas, was made by the Chevalier de Tonte, in 1685, at the

Indian village of Arkansas, situated on the river of that name. Emigrants from Canada afterwards arrived, but the progress of settlement was slow. Upon the cession of Louisiana to the United States, the ceded territory was divided into two parts—the *Territory of Orleans*, lying south of latitude thirty degrees, and the *District of Louisiana*, comprehending all the tract of country between the Mississippi and the Pacific Ocean. In March, 1805, the latter country was denominated the *Territory of Louisiana*. In 1812, this territory was constituted a territorial government, by the name of the *Territory of Missouri*. In March, 1819, the inhabitants of the northern parts were formed into a distinct district, by the name of *Missouri*, and soon after the southern was formed into a territorial government by the name of *Arkansas*. In December, 1819, an election for a delegate to congress was held for the first time.

14. During the following summer, 1819, the president visited the southern section of the country, having in view the same great national interests, which had prompted him in his previous tour to the north.

In this tour the president visited Charleston, Savannah, and Augusta; from this latter place he proceeded to Nashville, through the Cherokee nation, and thence to Louisville and Lexington, Kentucky, whence he returned to the seat of government early in August.

15. On the 14th of December following, a resolution passed congress, admitting ALABAMA into the Union, on an equal footing with the original states.

Alabama, though recently settled, appears to have been visited by Ferdinand de Soto in 1539. Some scattered settlements were made within the present state of Mississippi before the American revolution; but Alabama continued the hunting ground of savages until a much later period.

After the peace of 1783, Georgia laid claim to this territory, and exercised jurisdiction over it until the beginning of the present century. In 1795, an act passed the legislature of Georgia, by which twenty-five millions of acres of its *western territory* were sold to companies for five hundred thousand dollars, and the purchase money was paid into their treasury. The purchasers of these lands soon after sold them at advanced prices. The sale of the territory excited a warm opposition in Georgia, and, at a subsequent meeting of the legislature, the transaction was impeached, on the ground of bribery, corruption, and unconstitutionality. The records respecting the sale were ordered to be *burnt*, and the five hundred thousand dollars to be refunded to the purchasers.

Those who had acquired titles of the original purchasers instituted suits in the federal courts.

In 1802, however, Georgia ceded to the United States all her western territory, for one million two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. On this event, the purchasers of the Yazoo land petitioned congress for redress and compensation. After considerable opposition, an act passed for reimbursing them with funded stock, called the *Mississippi stock*. In 1800, the territory which now forms the states of Mississippi and Alabama, was erected into a territorial government. In 1817, Mississippi territory was divided, and the western portion of it was authorized to form a state constitution. The eastern portion was then formed into a territorial government, and received the name of Alabama. In July, 1819, a convention of delegates met at Huntsville, and adopted a state constitution, which being approved by congress in December following, the state was declared to be henceforth one of the United States.

16. In the ensuing year, March 3d, 1820, MAINE became an independent state, and a member of the Federal Union.

The separation of the District of Maine from Massachusetts, and its erection into an independent state, had been frequently attempted without success. In October, 1785, a convention met at Portland, for the purpose of considering the subject. In the succeeding year, the question was submitted to the people of Maine, to be decided in town-meetings, when it was found that a majority of freemen were against the measure. The subject was renewed in 1802, when a majority appeared averse to a separation. In 1819, an act passed the general court of Massachusetts, for ascertaining the wishes of the people; in conformity to which, a vote was taken in all the towns. A large majority were found in favor of a separation. A convention was called, and a constitution adopted, which being approved, Massachusetts and Maine amicably separated, the latter taking her proper rank, as one of the United States.

17. On the 5th of March, 1821, Mr. Monroe, who had been re-elected to the presidency, took the usual oath of office. The re-election of Monroe was nearly unanimous. Mr. Tompkins was again elected vice-president.

18. August 10th, 1821, the president, by his proclamation, declared MISSOURI to be an independent state, and that it was admitted into the Federal Union.

The first permanent settlements in Missouri appear to have been made at St. Genevieve and New Bourbon, which were founded soon after the peace of 1663. In the succeeding year, St. Louis, the capital of the state, was commenced. In 1762, Louisiana, and Missouri of course, were secretly ceded by France to Spain; but the latter did not attempt to take possession of the country until some years after.

Missouri remained in possession of Spain, through the war of the revolution, until the cession of Louisiana to France, in 1801, by which latter power it was ceded to the United States in 1803.

Upon the cession of Louisiana to the United States, the district which now forms the *State of Louisiana*, was separated from the territory, and made a distinct government, by the name of the *Territory of Orleans*. In 1811, the territory of Orleans became a state, by the name of *Louisiana*. The remaining part of the original province of Louisiana, extending to the Pacific, was erected into a territorial government, and called *Missouri*. In 1818–19, application was made to congress, by the people of this territory, to form a state constitution. A bill was accordingly introduced for the purpose, a provision of which forbade slavery or involuntary servitude. The bill, with this provision, passed the house of representatives, but was rejected in the senate, and, in consequence of this disagreement, the measure, for the time, failed. In the session of 1819–20, the bill was revived; and, after long and animated debates, a compromise was effected, by which slavery was to be tolerated in Missouri, and forbidden in all that part of Louisiana, as ceded by France, lying north of 36° 30′ north latitude, except so much as was included within the limits of the state. In the mean time, the people of Missouri had formed a state constitution. When this constitution was presented to congress, in 1820–21, a provision in it, which required the legislature to pass laws "to prevent free negroes and mulattoes from coming to, and settling in, the state," was strenuously opposed, on the ground that it violated the rights of such persons of that description as were citizens of any of the United States. The contest occupied a great part of the session, and it was finally determined, by a small majority, that Missouri should be admitted, upon the fundamental condition, that the contested clause should not be construed to authorize the passage of any laws, excluding citizens of other states from enjoying the privileges to which they are entitled by the constitution of the United States. It was also provided, that if the legislature of Missouri should, by a solemn public act, previously to the 4th Monday of November, 1821, declare the assent of the state to this fundamental condition, the president should issue his proclamation, declaring the admission complete. On the 24th of June, 1821, the legislature of Missouri assented to the fundamental

condition; and, on the 10th of August following, the president's proclamation was issued, declaring the admission complete.*

19. The first session of the seventeenth congress commenced on the third of December. The affairs of the nation were generally prosperous, and there seemed to be no obstacle in the way of wise and prudent measures. A spirit of jealousy, however, obtruded itself upon their deliberations, by which some beneficial measures were defeated, and the business of the session was unnecessarily delayed and neglected. Several acts of importance, however, were passed, concerning navigation and commerce; relieving still further the indigent veterans of the revolution; and fixing the ratio between population and representation, at one representative for every forty thousand inhabitants.

The constitution has not limited the number, but has only provided that no more than *one* shall be sent for thirty thousand inhabitants. Public opinion seems generally to have decided that a numerous representation is an evil, by which not only the business of the nation is neglected in the conflicts of individual opinions, but the people are subjected to an unnecessary expense. The congress that signed the Declaration of Independence consisted but of fifty-six members; and no deliberative assembly excelled them in industry and public virtue. The congress that formed the confederation consisted of forty-eight; that which formed the constitution consisted of only thirty-nine, and the first congress under that constitution, of but sixty-five. After the first census, the appointment being one for every thirty-three thousand inhabitants, the house consisted of one hundred and five representatives. The same apportionment being continued under the second census, there were one hundred and forty-one representatives. The apportionment under the third census allowed one for thirty-five thousand; and the house consisted of one hundred and eighty-seven members. The ratio fixed upon by the congress of 1822-3, was one for forty thousand; and the number of representatives was two hundred and twelve.

20. During the above session of congress, March 31, 1822, a territorial government was established for FLORIDA.

* American Atlas—Philadelphia.

The name of *Florida* was formerly given to an immense region of country discovered by Cabot in 1497. The first visitant to the actual territory of Florida was Ponce de Leon, who landed on Easter day, 1512. Navigators from several countries visited it, and various European sovereigns attempted to appropriate the country to themselves.

Spain, however, held possession of it until 1763, when it was ceded to Great Britain. In May, 1781, Don Galvez captured Pensacola, and soon afterwards completed the conquest of the whole of West Florida, which remained in possession of Spain until 1783, when Great Britain relinquished both provinces of Florida to Spain.

By the treaty of France, in 1803, which ceded Louisiana to the United States, it was declared to be ceded with the same extent that it had in the hands of Spain, when ceded to France. By virtue of this declaration, the United States claimed the country west of the Perdido river, and, in 1811, took possession of it, except the town and fort of Mobile, which were surrendered the following year. In 1814, a British expedition having been fitted out against the United States, from Pensacola, Gen. Jackson took possession of the town, but, having no authority to hold it, returned to Mobile. The Seminole Indians, with whom the United States were at war, residing partly within the limits of Florida, and making their incursions thence without restraint from the Spaniards, it became necessary to cross the territorial line to chastise them. Subsequently, Gen. Jackson took possession of Fort St. Marks and Pensacola, which the American troops held till November, 1818, when they were restored to Spain. In 1819, a transfer of the whole province was made by treaty to the United States, and, after many vexatious delays, the treaty was ratified by Spain in October, 1820, and finally by the United States in the month of February, 1821. Possession was delivered to Gen. Jackson, as commissioner of the United States, in July, 1821.

21. In the course of the summer of 1824, an event occurred, which caused the highest sensations of joy throughout the Union. This was the arrival of the Marquis de Lafayette, the friend and ally of the Americans during the former war with Great Britain, and who eminently contributed, by his fortune, influence, skill, and bravery, to achieve the glorious objects of their revolutionary struggle.

The visit of Lafayette to the United States occupied about a year; during which he visited each of the twenty-four states, and was every where hailed as a father. When the time ar-

rived which he had fixed as the termination of his visit, it was thought most fitting that his departure from the country should take place from the capital. A frigate was prepared at that place, and named, in compliment to him, the Brandywine, to transport him to his native country.

On the 7th of September, about noon, he entered the spacious hall in the president's mansion, where he was addressed by the chief magistrate of the nation in terms manly, patriotic, and affectionate. In a similar manner Lafayette replied, concluding as follows:—"God bless you, sir, and all who surround us. God bless the American people, each of their states, and the federal government. Accept this patriotic farewell of an overflowing heart; such will be its last throb when it ceases to beat."

Then, taking an affectionate leave of each individual present, the general left the hospitable mansion of the president. He was attended to the vessel by the whole population of the district. All business was suspended, and the vast multitude which lined the shores, witnessed his embarkation with a deep silence, highly indicative of the feelings that the American people cherished towards Lafayette. In passing Mount Vernon, he landed to pay a farewell visit to the tomb of Washington, whence re-embarking, a prosperous voyage soon safely landed him on his own paternal soil.

It may here be added, that, during the visit of this illustrious general, congress passed a bill appropriating the sum of two hundred thousand dollars, and a complete township of land, as a partial remuneration of services rendered by him during the revolutionary struggle of the country.

22. The administration of Mr. Monroe closed on the 3d of March. During his presidency, the country enjoyed a uniform state of peace and prosperity. By his prudent management of the national affairs, both foreign and domestic, he eminently contributed to the honor and happiness of millions, and retired from office enjoying the respect, and affection, and gratitude, of all who were able duly to appreciate the blessings of having a wise ruler.

23. The electors of a successor to Mr. Monroe having failed to make a choice, the election devolved on the house of representatives. On the 9th of February, 1825, that body proceeded to the discharge of this duty, when John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, was elected president of the United States, for the four years

from and after the 4th of the ensuing March John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, had been chosen vice-president, by the electoral colleges.

The subject of a successor to Mr. Monroe was early introduced to the notice of the public, and the excitement of the several parties in the United States was both fostered and increased by the newspapers and public journals of the day. Besides Mr. Adams, Mr. Crawford, secretary of the treasury, Mr. Clay, speaker of the house of representatives, and Gen. Jackson, a senator, were candidates for the office; each of whom had their respective friends in the country, and among the legislatures of the states, nearly all of which, by a public vote, declared in favor of some one of the candidates. On counting the votes of the electors, it appeared that 84 were in favor of Mr. Adams, 99 for Gen. Jackson, 41 for Mr. Crawford, and 37 for Mr. Clay. Notwithstanding Gen. Jackson had the greatest number of votes from the electoral colleges, the house of representatives, voting by states, elected Mr. Adams. The result of the balloting was, for Mr. Adams, 13 states; for Mr. Jackson, 7 states; for Mr. Crawford 4 states. By the constitution, only the three highest on the list could be candidates for the office in the house of representatives. Mr. Clay, therefore, was not voted for; but is supposed, by his influence, to have determined the question in favor of Mr. Adams in opposition to Mr. Crawford, who had been nominated by a caucus at Washington; and to Gen. Jackson, who had received the highest vote by the electors.

UNITED STATES.

PERIOD XII.

DISTINGUISHED FOR ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION.

Extending from the Inauguration of President Adams, 1825, *to the Inauguration of Andrew Jackson, as President of the United States,* 1829.

Sec. 1. On the 4th of March, Mr. Adams, in the presence of the senate, house of representatives, heads of department, foreign ministers, and a numerous assemblage of citizens and strangers, took the oath prescribed by the constitution, and entered upon the duties of president of the United States.

2. On the day of Mr. Adams's induction into office, the senate was convened by the executive, for the purpose of confirming nominations to office under the new administration. Henry Clay, of Kentucky, was appointed secretary of state; Richard Rush, of Pennsylvania, secretary of the treasury; and James Barbour, of Virginia, secretary of war.

3. About this time, a controversy arose between the national government and the executive of Georgia, in relation to certain lands held by the Creek nation, but which that state claimed as belonging to herself. In the progress of this controversy, so much warmth was manifested, both by Georgia and some of the neighboring states, that much anxiety was felt by persons in dif-

ferent parts of the Union as to the consequences. The prompt and vigilant measures of the national executive, however, sanctioned as they ultimately were by congress, settled the controversy without disturbing the peace of the Union.

This controversy grew out of a compact between the general government and the state of Georgia, in 1802. By that compact the United States agreed, in consideration of Georgia relinquishing her claim to the Mississippi territory, to extinguish, at the national expense, the Indian title to the lands occupied by them in Georgia, "whenever it could be peaceably done, upon reasonable terms." Since making that agreement, the general government had extinguished the Indian title to about fifteen millions of acres, and had conveyed the same to the state of Georgia. There still remained in that state exceeding nine millions of acres, in possession of Indians, of which about five millions belonged to the Cherokees, and the remainder to the Creek nation.

Shortly before the termination of Mr. Monroe's administration, an effort had been made to effect a treaty with the Creeks for their portion of the above lands. The Creeks, however, having become more civilized, refused to alienate their territory, and had even passed a law making it a capital offence to sell any more land. No solicitations of the commissioners appointed to purchase their lands, could induce them to consent, and, the council breaking up, a majority of the chiefs took their departure. A few, however, who thought differently, remained, and were induced to make a treaty, by which all the lands of the Creek tribes in Georgia and Alabama were ceded to the United States. This treaty was made the 12th of February, 1825, and was transmitted to the senate, and sanctioned by that body on the 3d of March, the last day of the session, without that examination of the circumstances which it would have had, had it been transmitted at an earlier period of the session.

When the news of the ratification of this treaty arrived among the Creeks, it produced great excitement. M'Intosh, the leader and chief of the party that assented to it, and another chief, were killed, and the treaty rejected.

In the mean time, the governor of Georgia, acting upon the assumption that the treaty was valid, made provision to have the lands surveyed, and distributed among the citizens by lottery. To the Creeks the conduct of Governor Troup was especially obnoxious, and, a war being likely to be the consequence of measures pursued, the president directed Gen. Gaines to repair to the country of the Creeks, to give them the necessary protection, and directed Gov. Troup to suspend his contemplated measures until the meeting of congress.

Efforts, however, continued to be made to settle this difficulty upon amicable terms; and at length, after a long negotiation with a deputation from the Creek nation at Washington, the old treaty was declared to be void, and a new one formed, by which the Creeks were to retain all their lands in Alabama, and to receive $217,000, and a perpetual annuity of $20,000 for their Georgia territory. To the M'Intosh party the United States agreed to pay $100,000, provided the party amounted to 3000; and so in proportion for a smaller number. Moreover, a tract of land beyond the Mississippi was to be provided for the accommodation of such as wished to remove, and the expense of removal and the first year's subsistence to be borne by the United States.

This treaty the senate ratified by a vote of 30 to 7. On the passage of the bill making appropriation to carry into effect the new treaty, the vote in the house of representatives stood 167 to 10. To the passage of the bill the Georgia delegation offered a protest, which was suffered to be entered on the journal of the house by a vote of 82 to 61.

The unanimity with which the conduct of the executive in the settlement of this intricate and unpleasant controversy, was approved by congress, was as unexpected as it was satisfactory to the people in every part of the country, except in the state of Georgia, where strong and excited feelings powerfully tended to prevent a fair and impartial consideration of the question.

4. The year 1825 was characterized by a spirit of speculation, which manifested itself not only throughout the United States, but also in Europe, and which ended in the embarrassment and ruin of thousands both here and in other countries.

The principal article of speculation was cotton, which rose, in a few weeks, from 6*d.* to 16*d.* sterling. This increase of price was partly owing to the small quantity then in the English market, but more to a spirit of commercial gambling, which had infected the whole commercial community. Coffee, spices, and other West India produce, also rose with great rapidity. Stocks, both public and private, exceeded all former prices. In a short time, however, the fictitious wealth which the expansion of the bubbles had created, suddenly disappeared, and the ruin of thousands followed. In England, more extensive bankruptcies occurred than had been known for many years, occasioning a universal alarm and distrust. The public funds fell rapidly. Many of the most eminent banking houses stopped payment, and the ministry were called upon to devise measures for present relief to the

intense pecuniary distress. The effects of these failures extended to other countries, and, though not equal in degree, were felt on the continent and in the United States.

5. On the 4th of July, 1826, occurred the 50th anniversary of American independence, which was celebrated throughout the Union with many demonstrations of joy. This day, rendered memorable by the event which it celebrated, was made still more memorable, in the annals of American history, by the death of the two venerable ex-presidents, ADAMS and JEFFERSON.

6. On the 4th of December, 1827, the first meeting of the twentieth congress commenced. The revision of the tariff, with a view to afford adequate protection to American manufactures, was by far the most interesting subject which presented itself to the deliberations of the legislature at this session. On the 22d of April, a bill for that purpose passed the house of representatives, and on the 13th of May, the senate, which, however, was by no means conformable to the wishes of the advocates of the protecting system.

In his annual report to the house, at the commencement of the session, the secretary of the treasury, in a labored discussion, maintained a system of protecting duties to be essential to the prosperity and independence of the nation. The subject was referred in the house to the committee on manufactures. The chairman of that committee was Mr. Mallory, of Vermont, an able and zealous advocate for the protecting system. A majority of the committee was opposed to it, and a bill, such as the majority directed, was presented to the house on the 31st of January. In regard to woollens, the duty on the manufacture, compared to that on the raw material, placed the manufacturer in a worse situation than under the tariff of 1824, and seemed likely to destroy the establishments, and with them the production of the raw material

Pending the discussion of this bill, meetings were held in various parts of the United States, to express the views of different classes of the community upon the subject. To the principle of protection the south was universally opposed, and generally importing merchants throughout the country. In the east, north, and west, the farmers, manufacturers, and mechanics, supported

the principle of protection, but were opposed to many of the leading features of the bill.

On the final passage of the bill, the ayes in the house were 105, noes 94; in the senate, ayes 26, noes 21. To the country at large the measure gave little satisfaction; and those for whose benefit it was professedly enacted, predicting its short continuance, slowly and cautiously adapted their business with a view to avail themselves of its provisions.

7. During the year 1828, the approaching presidential election was the all-engrossing topic of political discussion. The two candidates were Mr. Adams and Gen. Jackson. Their claims to the presidency were urged by their respective parties by a zeal which led to the most unwarrantable scrutiny of private life, and an unjustifiable attack upon private character. The result of the contest was a large majority in the electoral colleges for Gen. Jackson; 178 being for him, and only 83 for Mr. Adams.

The administration of Mr. Adams, from its very commencement, met with a powerful opposition. The circumstance of his not having been elected by the people, united to the small majority by which he was elected to his office in congress, was sufficient to call forth loud complaints, on the part of his opponents, and to justify, in their view, a more than usual watchfulness over his administration. Great pains were early taken to render him and his measures unpopular. The charge of a corrupt bargain between the president and secretary of state continued to be pertinaciously adhered to, and to be republished from mouth to mouth. The Panama mission was represented as a measure weak and injudicious, and the failure to obtain a participation in the British West India trade was averred to be in consequence of culpable mismanagement. Besides, it was charged upon his administration, that it was wasteful and extravagant.

Whatever might be the injustice of these accusations, and of a host of others, they were published abroad with the manifest design of preventing Mr. Adams's re-election. With what effect they were urged, the election of 1829 revealed. On canvassing the votes of the electoral colleges, it was apparent that the friends of Gen. Jackson had obtained as triumphant a victory, as those of the existing administration had experienced a mortifying defeat.

It has been well observed, and with the remarks of the writer we quote, we conclude, "That the events attending the political change of 1829, evince that, when a prize of such magnitude as

the presidency of the United States is set up, free to be contended for by all their citizens, the struggle will be arduous. All the human passions will be called into operation; the character of the means will not be regarded, provided they conduce to the end. In other nations, struggles for the supreme power have ever been attended with bloodshed. In this, the same passions operating, the virtue and intelligence of the people, with the most alarming examples in their own hemisphere before them, have hitherto stopped short of the last resort: whether, with the increasing magnitude of the object, this will continue to be the case, is as yet problematical, and dependent upon the good sense, virtue, and moderation, of the American people."

NOTES,

EMBRACING A BRIEF SKETCH OF THE PRESENT CONDITION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

8. MANNERS. Two centuries have elapsed since the first settlements were commenced in the United States by Europeans; yet the people have not acquired that uniform character which belongs to ancient nations, upon whom time and the stability of institutions have imprinted a particular and individual character. Although partial changes have occurred, which have been noticed in the progress of this work, yet, so far down as the present time, the *essential* variations which have taken place are few. The general physiognomy is nearly as varied as the origin of the population is different.

A marked distinction undoubtedly exists between the inhabitants of the commercial and maritime towns, and the villages of the country. The former, in a more considerable degree, as to luxury and vice, resemble the great towns of Europe. Those of the country, who lead an agricultural life, preserve much of the simplicity, with something of the roughness, of former days; but they enjoy all that happiness which proceeds from the exercise of the social virtues in their primitive purity. Their affections are constant; felicity crowns the conjugal union; parental authority is sacred; infidelity, on the part of the wife, is almost unknown; crime is rare, mendicity and theft uncommon.

The people generally are enterprising, industrious, persevering, and submissive to government. They are also intelligent, brave,

active, and benevolent, and possess a strength and agility of body which are seldom united in so great a degree. With somewhat of the appearance of apathy, and under a sober exterior, strong feelings, and a capacity for the most lively sallies, are concealed. As the benefits of education are extensively diffused, the ingenuity and intelligence of the people have been displayed to advantage, if not in the higher walks of literature, yet in the useful branches of knowledge, and in the arts which multiply the comforts of life.

9. RELIGION. The principal religious denominations, at present, in the United States, are Presbyterians, and Congregationalists, Baptists, Friends, Episcopalians, and Methodists. The two first of these unitedly have three thousand two hundred congregations; the number of Baptist congregations exceeds five thousand; Friends about four hundred; the Episcopalians nearly one thousand. The Methodists are the largest body of professing Christians in the United States, the number of their communicants exceeding half a million.

A great impulse has been given to religious action, within a few years, among the several denominations of Christians, in the United States. Missionary operations have been enlarged. Theological seminaries have been multiplied. Facilities for biblical learning have increased, and plans for the diffusion of knowledge, and the general improvement of mankind, both at home and abroad, are yearly devised and carried into operation.

10. TRADE AND COMMERCE. The commerce of the United States consists, principally, in the exchange of agricultural produce for the manufactures of other parts of the world, and the productions of the tropical climates. The principal articles of domestic produce, exported, are cotton, wheat flour, biscuit, tobacco, lumber, rice, pot and pearl ashes, Indian corn and meal, dried and pickled fish, beef, rye, pork, &c.

Of these exports, New England and New York are the great carriers. To them belong nearly two thirds of all the shipping of the United States. The states south of the Potomac own only one eighth part. Our staple articles are principally the growth of the Southern States, and are carried coastwise, from the Southern to the Middle States, whence they are sent to foreign coun-

tries, almost entirely, in ships owned by northern merchants, and navigated by northern seamen.

The exports from the United States are sent to various countries, but the British dominions always receive the largest portion of our domestic produce, particularly cotton. The Spanish, Portuguese, and French dominions, have usually received the most, next to the British.

The goods received in return for exports, are, generally, the manufactures of those countries to which the exports are carried. From Great Britain are imported vast quantities of woollen and cotton goods, and manufactures of iron, steel, brass, copper, glass, earthen ware, silk, &c. From China we receive tea and silk; from Russia iron and hemp. Coffee comes from the colonies of the European powers in America and the East Indies; sugar from the East and West Indies; rum from the British and Danish West Indies. Wines are, principally, from France, Spain, Portugal, Madeira, and the Canary Isles; brandy from France, Spain, Italy, &c. Notwithstanding the large amount of cotton, tobacco, lumber, &c., sent to Great Britain, yet the balance with that country is, and always has been, against us.

It will not be foreign to this article to add a few remarks upon the public debt. This debt was contracted in support of the war of independence. In 1791, it amounted to about seventy-five millions of dollars. From this date to the year 1812, owing to the great prosperity of the country, the debt was gradually diminished to about one half. But, on the recurrence of war, it again increased, and, in 1816, amounted to one hundred and twenty-three millions. It has been since diminishing, and will be entirely cancelled, it is expected, in the course of the year 1834.

11. AGRICULTURE. Until within a few years, agriculture, as a science, received but little attention in the United States. Few, if any, valuable improvements were attempted. Indifference and uncommon apathy seem to have pervaded society. A new era, however, has recently commenced, and agriculture, both as a science and an art, is receiving much of that attention which its acknowledged importance demands. It is beginning to be regarded, as it should be, not only as the basis of subsistence and population, but as the parent of individual and national opulence.

The proportion of the inhabitants of the United States, devoted to agricultural pursuits, is large. By the census of 1820, it ap-

pears that this proportion is more than one fifth of the whole population, or two millions. This number includes only those who are thus engaged by actual occupation, children and females generally being excluded. It embraces, therefore, about two thirds of all the males over ten years of age. The slave-holding states are the most agricultural, the proportion being usually from one quarter to one third of the whole population, while in the other states it generally falls below one fifth.

Of the several states, New York has the greatest number engaged in agriculture; Virginia next; and, next to those states, North Carolina, South Carolina, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, Ohio, Tennessee, and Georgia, in order. But the proportion of those devoted to agriculture, in the respective states, to their population, is different. Louisiana has the greatest proportion, or about thirty-five per cent.; South Carolina has thirty-two; Georgia and Mississippi, each twenty-nine; North Carolina twenty-seven; while New York has but eighteen, and Pennsylvania but thirteen per cent. No state in the Union has so small a proportion as Massachusetts.

12. Arts and Manufactures. Manufacturing establishments in the United States have become exceedingly numerous, and embrace nearly every variety of workmanship required either by the necessities or the luxurious habits of the people. Some of these have suffered from the frequent changes in the tariff laws, and from the general inadequacy of the protective system; but they may now be considered to have received the sanction of the American community, to form a part of the general policy of the nation.

13. Population. The population of the United States, according to the census of 1830, was twelve millions eight hundred and fifty-six thousand one hundred and sixty-five. Of this number, two millions ten thousand four hundred and thirty-six were slaves.

The following observations, respecting the population of the country, have been found to be true by a late respectable writer:* 1. That the inhabitants of the United States double in about twenty-five years. 2. That, taking the whole United States together, the whites increase faster than the blacks; but that, in the states in which the blacks are very numerous, they have almost uniformly increased faster than the whites in those

* Sidney E Morse.

states. In Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee, and Kentucky, the blacks, for the last thirty years, have increased much faster than the whites. In North Carolina and Tennessee, they have increased more than as fast again, and in South Carolina, during the last ten years, they have increased three times as fast. In the Northern States, on the contrary, the black population is almost stationary, and in Maine, New Hampshire and Rhode Island, it is diminishing. 3. That in all our great cities, the females are more numerous than the males, while in the whole United States the reverse is true. The average of all the cities gives nearly one hundred and nine females to one hundred males, whereas, in the whole United States, the average of females is but ninety-seven to one hundred males.

14. EDUCATION. The education of youth, which is so essential to the well being of society, and intimately connected with the political prosperity of a republican government, has received, as has been noticed in the progress of this work, considerable attention in the United States, in every period since their settlement. The present state of our primary and higher schools, of our colleges, universities, and other establishments of education, is more flourishing than at any former period: their number is annually increasing, and a more liberal spirit, in respect to their endowment, is prevailing.

REFLECTIONS.

15. Upon concluding this history of our country, we can scarcely refrain from asking, Who of our ancestors anticipated results from their toils so stupendous as those which we behold? Who of them predicted, while they were laying up the pines of the forest for a shelter, that they were commencing an empire, which, within two centuries, would extend thousands of miles, and embrace, within its bosom, ten millions of the human race? Who then thought of cities, with their busy population, a thousand miles from the waters of the Atlantic? or of fleets, on inland seas, proceeding to, and returning from, distant voyages? or of navies pouring forth their thunder and their flame? Such results entered not into sober calculation, and were beyond even the dreams of fancy. Yet two centuries have brought them to pass.

The branch which our fathers planted, under the fostering care of Heaven, rose, extended, invigorated. It acquired stability by oppression, and gathered importance from the efforts which were made to crush it. In the progress of our history, we have seen the American people, while sustaining only the character of colonists, and struggling with the discouragements and difficulties of new settlements, maintaining at their own expense, and bringing to prosperous conclusion, wars, which a selfish and jealous mother country, by her pride and imprudence, had occasioned. We have seen these colonies, amidst all the oppressions which they experienced, through exactions, and calumnies, loss of charters, and one abridgment of liberty after another, still maintaining their loyalty—still indulging the feelings, and adopting the language of affection, until justice, and patriotism, and religion, bid them rise to assert those rights which the God of nature designed for all his rational offspring.

Through a long and trying war, in which inexperience had to contend with discipline, and poverty with wealth, we see them pledging their fortunes, liberties, and lives, to one another, and, to the astonishment of the world, accomplishing their emancipation. And, when emancipated, and transformed into an independent nation, we see them calmly betaking themselves to the organization of a government, under a constitution as wise as it was singular, and whose excellency and competency the experience of more than thirty years has confirmed. Simultaneously with these events, what extensive conquests have been made on the wilderness! Deserts have put on beauty and fruitfulness, and a way been constantly extending towards the waters of the Pacific, for the advance of civilization and religion.

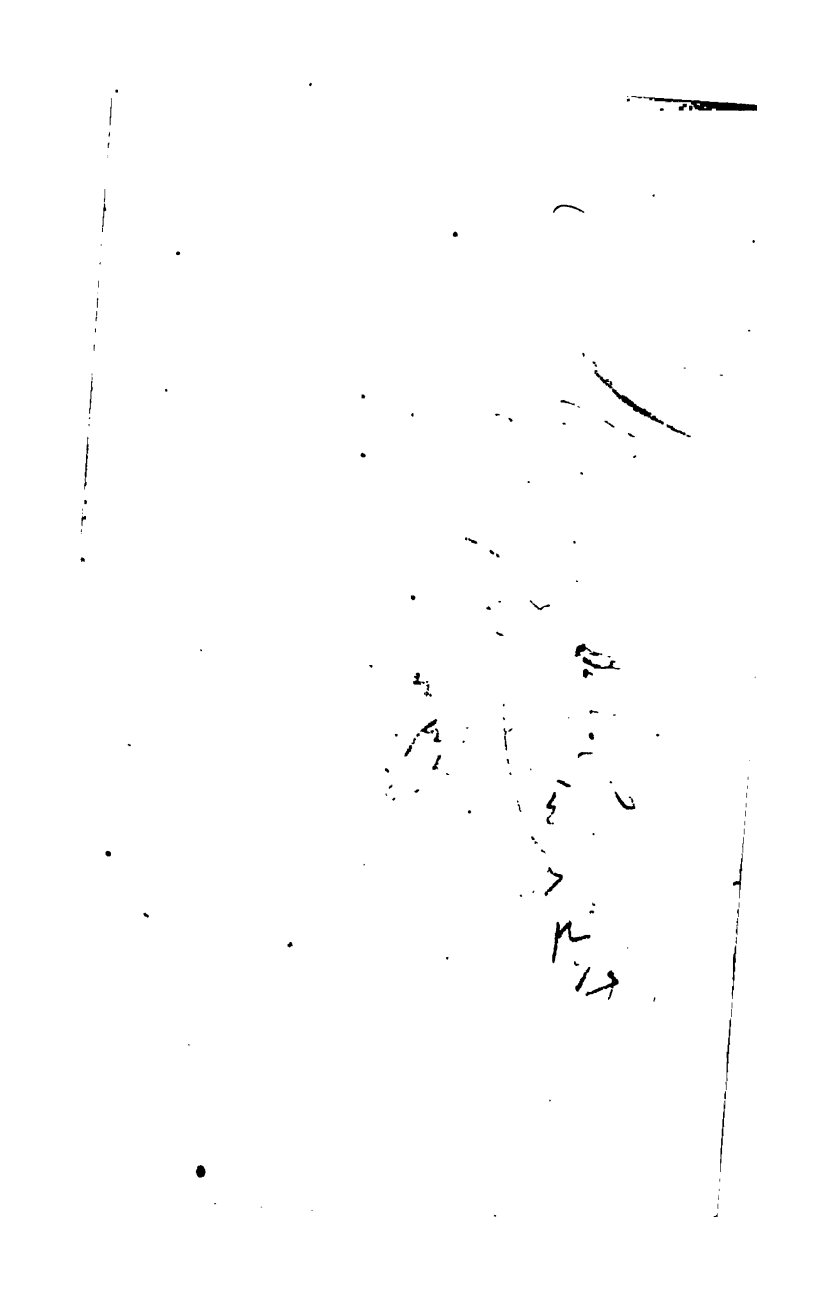
Had we the spirit of prophecy, in respect to the future condition of America, this would not be the place to indulge it. No nation, however, ever possessed, in a higher degree, the means of national prosperity. Our territory is ample—our soil fertile—our climate propitious—our citizens enterprising, brave, and persevering. A sea-coast of three thousand miles, inland seas, numerous canals, facilitate foreign and domestic trade. Being free and independent of other nations, we can frame our laws, and fashion our institutions, as experience and an enlightened policy shall dictate. Our universities and colleges are yearly qualifying numbers for the higher professions of life, while our academies and schools are diffusing intelligence to an unparalleled extent, among our virtuous yeomanry.

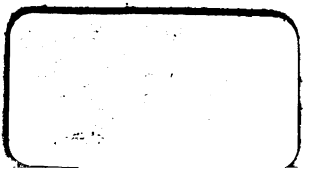
The Bible and the institutions of Christianity are with us, and are presenting to us all the blessings which religion can impart. Thus circumstanced, what should prevent our country from advancing to that eminence of national happiness,

beyond which national happiness cannot extend?—"Manufactures may here rise—busy commerce, inland and foreign, distribute our surplus produce, augment our capital, give energy to industry, improvement to roads, patronage to arts and sciences, vigor to schools, and universality to the institutions of religion; reconciling civil liberty with efficient government; extended population with concentrated action; and unparalleled wealth with sobriety and morality."

Let but the spirit, the practical wisdom, the *religious integrity* of the first planters of our soil, prevail among rulers and subjects—let God be acknowledged, by giving that place to his word and institutions which they claim—and all these blessings are ours. We shall enjoy peace with nations abroad, and tranquillity at home. As years revolve, the tide of our national prosperity will flow broader and deeper. In the beautiful language of inspiration—"Our sons will be as plants grown up in their youth, and our daughters as corner-stones, polished after the similitude of a palace. Our garners will be full, including all manner of stores; our sheep will bring forth by thousands and ten thousands; our oxen will be strong to labor; and there will be no breaking in, or going out, or complaining in our streets.—Happy is that people that is in such a case; yea, happy is that people whose God is the Lord."

THE END.





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